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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EMOTIONAL EPIDEMICS

FOR every controversy with schools that causes enough commotion to be reported nationally in the press, there are probably dozens of incidents that never get aired outside the communities in which they occur. Efforts to ban books from local school libraries are probably far more widespread than many people suspect. One of these local outbreaks has been stirring up emotions in New Hyde Park, Long Island. A brief account of the incident is given in *Publishers' Weekly* for September 18, 1954, from which the following paragraphs are taken:

The book in question, *Russia*, was written by Vernon Ives, president of Holiday House, as part of the "Lands and Peoples" series, in which there are 19 titles in print. It was published in 1943 and slightly revised in 1951, when a paragraph was added noting the deterioration of U.S.-Russian relations but commenting that "a way of life not our own is not necessarily the wrong way." The book is intended for readers of the 11-to-15 age group.

On August 4, Mrs. Maude Willdigg, New Hyde Park housewife and mother of two, signed a copy of *Russia* out of the school library. She charged that the book was subversive and demanded that the eight remaining copies in the library be destroyed. She was joined in this demand by the American Legion, the Knights of Columbus, several clergymen, and the New Hyde Park *Herald*.

By a slim 4-3 majority, the school board voted to keep the book on the shelves pending review by the state screening committee. The board also voted to replace the copy of *Russia* confiscated by Mrs. Willdigg and to bill her \$1.25 for replacement cost.

In an exclusive statement to *Publishers' Weekly*, author-publisher Vernon Ives writes: "I am appalled both by statements made about my book, *Russia*, and by the insistent pressure being brought to bear on the New Hyde Park School Board. As I understand it, a parent arbitrarily removed the book from the school library, and subsequent statements appeared in the local press that the book is 'pro-Russian propaganda,' 'anti-American,' and 'a pack of lies.'"

"The book was written in 1943 and was intended to be a brief, objective survey of one of our wartime allies. It was so regarded by standard school and library evaluating media. In the light of today's changed

attitudes, some of the statements may seem dated, but scarcely subversive.

"However, more is at stake in this controversy than the merits of any one book. The real issue is whether the judgment of trained teachers and librarians, backed by professional approved lists, is to be arbitrarily set aside by self-appointed censors. This issue has not yet been resolved."

The New York State Board of Regents has a commission to screen textbooks used in New York public schools, but the board has not yet decided whether it will rule on the acceptability of this particular book. Nevertheless, *Publishers' Weekly* reports that the book is no longer on the shelves of the school library as a result of a suggestion by the chairman of the commission, Dr. Frederick J. Moffat, assistant commissioner of the State Department of Education in Albany, that it be removed because of the controversy.

In almost all incidents of this type a pattern of behavior seems to appear. An individual or a small group of individuals takes exception to a situation or an action of responsible authorities. In some cases the issue is raised directly with these authorities, and it is handled with more or less satisfaction to all concerned. The community as a whole does not become deeply involved and emotionally upset. In other cases, however, a disturbance occurs which may ultimately damage the community far more than would have resulted from the initial situation. One does not have to decide for himself whether the book on *Russia* referred to above is or is not subversive, or what action is proper if it is, to

recognize that the interpersonal relations of many people in New Hyde Park will be strained for months and even years to come. There is a strong presumption that, in the normal flow of events, the content of the book, even if overly favorable to Russia, would have influenced the attitudes of few, if any, people in the town to any measurable extent. In contrast, the public controversy over the book has probably deepened undemocratic as well as democratic attitudes in an atmosphere of emotional tension.

Incidents of this sort are being studied carefully by social scientists. Unfortunately the incidents usually break out so unexpectedly that competent investigators are not on the scene in time to gather firsthand data from the beginning. Eventually, perhaps, communities will learn how to deal with such outbreaks by rational methods and without damaging the fabric of community life.

These same comments apply not only to the banning of books but also to other controversial issues. As the fall term of school opened, some communities managed a transition to racially nonsegregated schools without trouble. In other communities there were incidents of sufficient significance to be reported widely in the newspapers. In Milford, Delaware, the Board of Education on September 8 ordered that desegregation begin by enrolling eleven Negroes in Grade X of the high school. The *New York Times* for Sunday, September 26, 1954, tells what happened:

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Sullen resentment erupted last Sunday and Monday in two mass meetings that produced a petition against integration signed by over 1,000 citizens. Anonymous phone calls threatened the four school-board members with violence. The board closed the schools, announced they would open a week later on the integrated plan, and carried its case to the State Capital at Dover. The state attorney-general told the Milford board that it had not violated any state law, but its decision must be approved by the State Board of Education. When the State Board of Education refused to approve or disapprove, the Milford board resigned and dropped the whole problem in the State Board's lap.

Thereupon the State Board said it would reopen the schools Monday [September 27] with the eleven Negroes in the "white" school. On Friday Governor J. Caleb Bodd called on Milford citizens regardless of "personal views, to see that law and order and calmness prevail."¹

An article on "Desegregation: Progress Report" by James Ewing in the same issue of the *New York Times* states that "no pattern has been established, geographically or otherwise, with respect to the few scattered incidents that have occurred." He goes on to comment on the situations that arose in Milford, Delaware, and in White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia:

The most violent reaction to desegregation reported thus far, according to the Southern Education Reporting Service here, has been in the little resort town of White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia. At near-by

Madison, West Virginia, however, Principal E. C. Brown has reported that integration of eighteen Negroes into afternoon high-school classes is "working out fine."

In describing the method by which Madison's Scott High School achieved integration smoothly, Mr. Brown explained that a number of parents of students there—as in the White Sulphur Springs protests, which caused an integration order to be rescinded—had encouraged their children to rebel.

Noting that the protesters were in the minority, however, Madison authorities left it to the student council and called an assembly of all the students to "talk out" the difficulties.

Desegregation has been taking place gradually and without incident, even before the decision of the Supreme Court. In an article titled "When Negroes Entered a Texas School," appearing in *Harper's Magazine* for September, 1954, Arthur D. Morse describes the relatively tensionless experience of the public junior college in Corpus Christi. He concludes, "Its experience suggests that with tact and humor and good faith other southern communities may find this adjustment easier than they expect."

It seems to this editorial writer that there is a sort of "pattern" in these incidents and others of similar type that have occurred in times past. In this pattern, a few individuals are permitted to arouse the emotions of a whole community to the point where the community itself loses control of the situation. In other cases this pattern is not allowed to take form because of intelligent local action.

Certainly, as Morse concluded, "tact and humor and good faith" are needed in generous amounts in any

¹ On September 27 the Milford High School reopened, with state police standing guard. Threats of violence were not carried out, but most of the white pupils were missing. On September 30 a new school board took office and voted, "in the welfare of the children and the community as a whole," to end integration.

controversial situation. Here and there outbreaks of physical diseases like smallpox and typhoid fever occur from time to time. Scientists know how to handle such situations, and ultimately they will know how to deal as well with the emotional disturbances of communities.

HOW MUCH PER HOUR?

TAXPAYERS sometimes argue that teachers are well paid. Other taxpayers, notably the teachers themselves, do not agree. The argument usually hinges on the length of the teacher's work week. A surprisingly large number of people will multiply the length of the regular class period by the normal number of periods in the teacher's load and estimate that the teacher puts in twenty-five or maybe even thirty hours a week on the job. This figure is then used to calculate an hourly wage, and a letter is promptly mailed to the local newspaper. The letter reads something like this:

TO THE EDITOR:

I am a taxpayer. I am tired of hearing complaints about the low salaries paid to teachers. I note in your columns that the average teacher in our town makes about \$3,600 a year or \$100 a week. Since they only work about 25 hours for this, it figures at about \$4 an hour. This is a lot more than most of us taxpayers get. Besides, teachers get long vacations. . . .

If the editor publishes the letter, as he often does, a few days later some replies may appear. They will point out that most teachers have many duties in addition to their regular classroom "teaching" assignments.

When the hours spent at these duties are included, the teacher's work week often turns out to be longer than the familiar forty-hour standard of industry. It is easy for the casual reader to overlook these rebuttals or to discount them if they are noticed.

Perhaps teachers should ask to be paid by the hour or by the week. This would focus attention on what their work week actually is. In California, in 1950, the *average* work week of the high-school teachers was 43 hours and 33 minutes. About one-fourth of the teachers put in less than 39 hours a week, but the upper one-fourth worked more than 49 hours. California has high certification requirements and the highest average annual pay of any state (\$4,800 in 1953-54). The hourly rate of pay thus works out to be about \$3 an hour. If the average salary paid public school teachers in the United States (\$3,605) is used, the rate is about \$2.30 per hour—a rate which is low in relation to many other less enervating jobs.

The data on length of work week mentioned above are taken from a study by the California State Department of Education which was reported in *California Schools* (their official publication) for August, 1954. The article, "Survey of Teachers' Work Week in California High Schools," was reported by Henry W. Magnuson, chief of the Bureau of Education Research in the State Department, and Thomas A. Shellhammer and Peter J. Tashnovian, consultants. The survey included 12,758 full-time instructors employed in the public high

schools of California. The report shows that only about half of the time spent by the teacher is given to classroom instruction, the median being 22 hours and 20 minutes. Other data reported in the article show that variations in the median time on the job are not extreme for schools with a wide range of enrolment, nor are they particularly notable when analyzed according to subjects taught. It is probable that the data from many other states or individual districts would be quite similar to those reported.

It may be noted, however, that teachers who have more than one subject in their program tend to spend considerably more time per week on the job. An assignment to more than one subject definitely increases the "load" in terms of time required to do the job, but teachers are rarely paid "overtime" for this kind of assignment. In fact, the orientation of teaching toward the professions rather than toward skilled trades tends to make such terms as "overtime" and "hourly pay" distasteful to many teachers. Discussion of the teacher's income is phrased in terms of "salary," which is now increasingly being paid on a twelve-month basis.

It should be remembered, when the time comes for an increased tax levy or a referendum to enable the board of education to raise salaries, that in most communities the hourly wage-earners greatly outnumber those from the professional groups. The hourly or weekly wage is a far more meaningful figure than annual income for most people. It is useful, therefore, to have

authentic data, such as those reported in the California survey seem to be, to use as a basis for publicity. Vague generalities, such as "teachers have to spend a lot of time supervising activities, preparing lessons, and grading papers" may help convince some financially hard-pressed citizens that their children's teacher also needs a wage increase. If, however, the actual hourly wage of the teacher is known, it will make the argument more convincing to the voter who earns enough to own property and to be "tax conscious" at the local level.

At the national or organizational level, labor actively supports the schools. For example, publications of the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO) regularly contain materials on the current situation and the attitude of labor toward it. The March, 1954, bulletin *Economic Outlook* of the CIO's Department of Education and Research, is entirely devoted to financial problems of the schools. This bulletin, subtitled "If We Fail the Schools . . .," may be obtained from the CIO, 718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., at \$0.15 a copy, with discounts for orders in quantities.

In a discussion of the teacher shortage, the bulletin says:

When we consider that the average salary of teachers for 1953-54 is \$3,605 a year it is small wonder that we can't attract young people to teaching or keep them in the classroom for more than a few years. If we want teachers who are college graduates then we have to pay them salaries such as they might get in other jobs which are open to college graduates. Look at . . . teachers' salaries

...and ask yourself if you would care to spend 6 hours a day with 40 lively youngsters plus another 6 hours of paper work, attending meetings, and other out-of-class duties, all for the magnificent sum of what the teachers in your state are paid.

Additional data on various aspects of the current situation may be found in *Our Public Schools and Their Financial Support*, a statement prepared by the Subcommittee on Financial Needs of Education of the Educational Advisory Committee of the National Association of Manufacturers. This report, in Section 2 of the *NAM News* for August, 1954, contains charts and numerous succinct, hard-hitting statements about enrolment trends, the shortage of teachers and classrooms, and about the financial support needed by schools. Here again the facts are well known within educational circles, but the NAM report will be particularly useful for informing citizens generally and, in particular, those tax-conscious individuals who attribute all requests for additional support to an "educators' lobby."

The brochure is intended primarily for the membership of the association, as is clear from the following "Introductory Statement" by Earl Bunting, managing director:

The National Association of Manufacturers took a bold step forward when it adopted its 1951 resolution on the financial support of all levels of education—public and private. During the subsequent years, we have become more convinced than ever that industry wants to do its part in solving the problems of obtaining adequate support of our schools and colleges. To this end we decided to produce a series—two in number

—of membership materials which would highlight the problems and offer suggested possible action procedures.

A highly competent group of professional educators worked with us in preparing these materials. I hope you will read them carefully and discuss them with your fellow industrialists and businessmen.

We recognize that industry and business are but two segments of our entire society and that all segments must share the ultimate responsibility for support of all education. However, we believe this study may well be addressed directly to industry because of industry's interest and stake in education.

Educators will, I am sure, appreciate your interest and assistance. Our schools and colleges need your help.

A news release issued by the NAM states that the association plans to furnish copies of the report to administrators of elementary and high schools and to some other educators. The address of the National Association of Manufacturers is 2 East Forty-eighth Street, New York 17, New York.

PRECIOUS JEWELS

SO MANY CRITICISMS of public education have been aired recently that it can do little harm to add one more: that children nowadays are apparently not required to memorize poetry to the same extent as in "the good old days." This means that they will be handicapped in two ways. On the one hand, it will be difficult for them to make use of passages from famous authors in their future writing—if they ever do any. On the other hand, they may fail to appreciate fully such passages encountered in the writing of others—if they ever have occasion to

Anthology of criticism

merous publications anthologized

read that kind of writing. Right now, for example, a quotation from *As You Like It* comes to mind. In times past, a high-school English teacher expected his students to memorize these lines:

Sweet are the uses of adversity;
Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in his head;

It is doubtful, however, that the teacher could have anticipated the "functional" use of these lines as a preamble to some comments on the recent outbreak of really serious criticisms of education.

First of all, teachers in the United States should be thankful that they are living under a type of government that permits, and a bill of rights that guarantees, the free expression of opinion. Educators may think that some of the criticisms leveled at the schools are intemperate and unjustified, but the opportunity remains to answer them vigorously and at length. Here and there a community may be disrupted by dissension over school policies, but this intense local interest is to be preferred over central control and local apathy. In the long run the American educational system is more likely to be improved than damaged as a result of attacks upon it. This is the jewel to be sought from the ugly and venomous criticisms that have appeared.

Anthology The recent criticisms of criticisms and counterarguments have now become so numerous and varied as to justify the publication by Prentice-Hall of the anthology *Public Education under*

Criticism. The compilers, C. Winfield Scott and Clyde M. Hill, both of Yale University, have selected and classified articles, and excerpts from articles, on both sides of the major issues. They have also included materials under the headings "General Defenses," "Evaluation of Critics and Criticisms," and "How To Handle Criticisms." In chapter i they describe the situation, their purpose in compiling the anthology, and the method of presentation to be followed. In the last chapter they present some generalizations and suggestions for constructive action. The period covered by the survey was 1940-53. The editors' judgments as to what to include seem to have been very carefully made, and the result is an excellent sample of the controversial writing of the period.

It is a bit difficult to see where a book of this kind fits into educational literature. It is neither a textbook nor a treatise on educational theory. In the main it is not a report on research, although some of the articles reprinted do include summaries of, and comments on, educational research.

One of the chief values of the work is that it permits the reader to get a representative picture of the current situation in one massive dose. The original articles naturally appeared at different times and in many different publications. Articles in rebuttal usually follow the original attack by weeks or months, and, as often happens in such cases, their effectiveness is thereby diminished. When the materials are collected into a book, it is

possible to read them as a group and to form a clearer picture of the seriousness of the situation. Scott and Hill themselves, after examining all the relevant material, comment:

While the present situation is unquestionably serious, [the editors] do not view it with as much alarm as is evident in many educational writings. They believe that education is firmly enough established to withstand the attacks of both honest critics and crackpots, provided we alertly guard the bastions and at the same time work determinedly to improve the understandings of educators and laymen alike of what education is about.

Again, in concluding their brief analysis of the causes of the present rash of criticisms, the authors say:

Presently, enemies of education may be so active and influential as to require the major effort of all defenders of public education. However, subduing or quieting them can do nothing more than give educators needed time to deal in a truly educational fashion with the basic causes of criticisms. Only through reduction of fear and insecurity in society; better agreement as to purposes, content, and methods of education; greater and devotion to the cause of public education itself can lasting progress be made.

Finally, among the generalizations made by the authors is the significant statement that "there is abundant evidence to warrant the belief that the contemporary wave of criticism is an expression of a deep-seated, abiding faith in public education." This faith is a precious jewel, and sweet are the uses of adversity if they enable us to reveal the jewel by giving it a proper setting. As Scott and Hill put it:

If this ninth generalization is valid, or even fairly so, the whole movement of con-

temporary criticism should constitute the greatest challenge school men have ever experienced. If it is accepted in this spirit by all friends of public education, nothing but good can come from it. First of all such an attitude would develop a sincere desire to take criticism seriously, to analyze it objectively, and to see to it that the schools profit by it. Furthermore, it would motivate an eagerness constantly to reconsider objectives, to clarify purposes, to refine processes, and to evaluate results. This would lead to the accumulation of irrefutable, easily interpreted facts to be used in defense of schools when attacks are made upon them. Not the least value to be derived from a constructive interpretation of criticism would be the abandonment of dubious objectives and questionable functions which the public schools have espoused. The enrichment and refinement of the means to be employed in the realization of the really worth-while ends of schooling must constantly be sought.

Investigating the foundations "In our time crises have become almost as normal in American education as in international relations." These words from the *Saturday Review* in its special education issue of September 11, 1954, introduce the featured discussion of five current crises. Number five in the list is "the threat to learning and free inquiry implicit in the activities of such groups as the House of Representatives' Reece Committee." Readers will recall that in its public hearings the Reece Committee listened to a great many criticisms of the philanthropic foundations, and, in particular, of the Carnegie, Ford, and Rockefeller foundations. These organizations had not been given the opportunity to present their case in open hearings when the

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committee announced on July 2, 1954, that no further public hearings would be held. The foundations were, however, permitted to submit individual sworn statements on the issues for inclusion in the record. These statements were released by the foundations late in the summer. They provide superlative examples of restrained but highly effective rebuttal arguments.

As of this date (September 23, 1954), the writer has seen no announcement of what conclusions, if any, the Reece Committee has drawn from its mass of oral testimony and sworn statements in written form. The following quotation from the *Statement of the Rockefeller Foundation and the General Education Board: before the Special Committee To Investigate Tax Exempt Foundations, House of Representatives, 83rd Congress* purports to give the line of reasoning with which the committee started:

The Committee's Director of Research described the logic used in the preparation of his initial report as "reasoning from a total effect to its primary or secondary causes." If we read his report fairly in the context of this investigation, his logic produces the following: (1) a revolution occurred in the United States in the years 1933-36; (2) this revolution occurred without violence and with the full consent of an overwhelming majority of the electorate; (3) this could not have happened had not education in the United States prepared in advance to endorse it; (4) the foundations contributed funds and ideas to education; (5) therefore, the foundations are responsible for the revolution.

The *Statement* goes on to object to this line of reasoning. It does not,

however, venture to point out that evidence of a revolution would indeed have been available if the accused had not been offered an opportunity to reply to the accusers. This basic right still stands in our laws and, except in relatively rare instances of miscarriage of justice, is observed in practice. The procedures of the Reece and certain other committees are objectionable to many citizens because these procedures seem to be weakening, rather than strengthening, such basic legal rights. This threat is serious, but we are fortunate that vigorous criticism even of committees of the Congress is still possible in this country.

The section of the *Statement of the Rockefeller Foundation and the General Education Board* which deals with "School and College Curricula" is of special interest to persons working actively in education. The section begins as follows:

It has also been charged that foundations have been responsible for "changing both school and college curricula to the point where they sometimes denied the principles underlying the American way of life" and for promoting "a national system of education."²

Our two foundations have had neither the power nor the intent to bring about such changes.

The *Statement* then points out that the responsibility for public education rests with the states. It refers to the well-known changes in the composition of the school population during recent decades and to studies that

¹ Transcript, p. 45 [footnote in original].

² Transcript, p. 127 [footnote in original].

were initiated by a number of state departments of education and national organizations of educators to see how education could be improved. It then comments:

Some of the witnesses before the Committee seem to regard these activities as the fruit of a malevolent impulse to subvert our institutions. No doubt some of the studies referred to were unproductive, or went off on the wrong track. Teachers and college professors are as liable to error as the members of any other profession. But the wholesale accusations against our leading teachers' organizations, which have occupied so much of the Committee's time, are believed to rest upon a perversion of the facts and to be an unwarranted attack upon the loyalty, patriotism, and intelligence of a devoted group of public servants.

The *Statement* then summarizes the activities of the Rockefeller Foundation and the General Education Board in assisting various institutions and organizations. It points out:

The great bulk of the Board's funds—more than \$250,000,000—were used for endowment, buildings and facilities, increased funds for teachers' salaries, and help in meeting current expenses for established institutions whose activities and traditions had long been part of the American scene.

A small part (8 per cent) of the Board's grants has been used, either directly or through endowment and support of schools of education, for study and experimentation with educational methods and procedures. No program of education can remain static and be healthy.¹ There must be constant

¹ "Education which is not modern shares the fate of all organic things which are kept too long."—ALFRED NORTH WHITEHEAD, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 117. [Footnote in original.]

experimentation with improved methods and study of ways to utilize new knowledge if American education is to be adequate to its task.

After indicating some of the major projects to which the General Education Board contributed, the *Statement* goes on to say:

Obviously this diversified program in which so many institutions and so many people with different points of view and different experiences participated was no effort on the part of the Board to slant school and college curricula in a particular direction. Furthermore any careful examination of these school and college curricula will reveal not only that they continue to show the wide diversity that is one of the strengths of our educational system, but also that they are more concerned with education for good citizenship than ever before in our history and that through them all runs a common core of loyalty to our American way of life.

If the loyalty and integrity of the men who are responsible for these foundations are to be seriously questioned, the nation as a whole is in far more serious jeopardy than ever before in its history. In spite of an initial approach to its problem that seems to have been misguided and biased, the Reece Committee now has before it information that undoubtedly gives an accurate account of the procedures and activities of at least three major foundations. It is to be hoped that the final report will so clear the air that no further investigation of these charges will be warranted. From this investigation, and others of similar type, another very precious jewel may yet emerge, namely, a deeper concern on

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MAY I BORROW YOUR HOMEWORK?

WHAT is your opinion of the value of homework?" The experienced speaker before a group of parents or teachers expects to be asked this question fairly often. Nearly everyone has opinions about homework, including the boys and girls who are expected to do it. There can be little question that the way they look at it will influence its value for them. Some indication of their opinions is given in an article, "A Questionnaire Study of Junior High School Students' Reactions to Homework," written by Belle Schiller, of the Henry P. O'Neil Junior High School in New York. The article, which may be found in *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City* for June, 1954, reports results obtained from 117 above-average pupils in Grades VII-IX. The following quotation summarizes some of the data on the children's opinions of homework.

Thirty-three per cent of the boys and 53 per cent of the girls, or approximately 43 per cent of the entire group, give qualified approval of homework. Among the qualifications we find: "It should not be given for all classes at the same time." "During May and June we should have very little; so we can have more time to play outside." "It is good if you understand it." "Teachers probably give homework so children can practice new work and brush up on old."

Thirty per cent of the entire group regis-

ter disapproval: "I sometimes think teachers give it just to be spiteful." "I don't believe in it since everyone checks answers before we give it in; so it doesn't do any good." "Children who are up to standard shouldn't have to do it." "If children seek parents' help, it does them no good."

Of particular interest are the data on the extent of "copying" and the opinions about it. The author summarizes these data as follows:

The response to this question again shows a sharp increase in the ninth grade, where 82 per cent state that they copy homework, while 33 per cent of the seventh-graders and 46 per cent of the eighth-graders report that they copy. Reasons given for copying follow:

- a) Fifty-five per cent concern what might be called mechanical factors—i.e., forgetting to do it, leaving it at home, losing the assignment, not having the time to do it, and the like.
- b) Thirty per cent give inability to do the assignment as the reason for copying.
- c) The remaining pupils indicate that they wish to avoid scolding and trouble, or that they do not feel like doing it, or it is too long to do.

The most frequent reasons for not copying homework fall into the following categories:

- a) Forty-six per cent involve practical considerations—such as, the homework may be wrong, the child won't gain anything, it won't help in a test, one can't do school work while copying homework.
- b) Thirty per cent give reasons involving ethical considerations—as, "not fair"; "not honest"; "it wouldn't be my own work"; "I am only cheating myself"; "I don't think it is right."
- c) Twenty-five per cent report that they do not copy homework because they have no occasion to do so—i.e., they ask the teacher to explain it; the teacher will excuse them if they have a good reason; parents

help when the child doesn't understand the assignment; they would rather spend that time talking to their friends.

In connection with one of her recommendations growing out of the study, Miss Schiller comments on the relation of character development and the widespread practice of copying homework. She says, "Apparently, since relatively few mention it, the ethical implications of copying are either not recognized or not faced by these youngsters," and she suggests that teachers ought to do something about it. This is certainly a point well taken.

It seems to the writer that "homework," broadly interpreted and properly administered, can play a useful role in the educational process. Unfortunately school practices in connection with homework have too often been inconsistent with modern theories of learning. This is, however, one place where reform should be fairly easy to bring about no matter how modern or how traditional the local organization of the curriculum may be. This is a down-to-earth subject for in-service investigation by local faculties. It probably lies much closer to the interest of most teachers than many other projects, for example, those involving a more direct approach to the school's philosophy and objectives.

A great many teachers seem to be completely unaware of the extent to which certain aspects of their behavior and their demands run counter to basic objectives of the educational

program. Their notions of the purposes of homework, their practices as to collecting and marking it, their decisions as to how much weight is put on pupil's homework in determining final marks, and, finally, their statements to the pupils about these matters undoubtedly have great influence. Miss Schiller's article and especially her recommendations should be useful background material for school faculties who may be trying to improve their own practices with respect to homework.

ECONOMIC EDUCATION

A NEW ORGANIZATION, the Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education, formed by business, industry, labor, and education, through the efforts of the National Better Business Bureau and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, will provide funds for a three-year study on economic education for secondary-school youth.

Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, leader in secondary education, is chairman of the board of trustees of the council. He announced that the director of the study, beginning October 1, will be Dr. Galen Jones, formerly with the United States Office of Education.

The council has decided on these tasks:

1. It will attempt to find out what knowledge and understandings are essential to economic literacy; that is, what are the functions or ingredients of our economy that can be agreed upon as *essential* for all citizens to know if they are to understand

its value to them. (At this time, there is no agreement by either educators or the public on what essential minimum economic education for all citizens should include and, therefore, no agreement on what should be taught.)

2. The council will propose how much of what is decided to be essential can be successfully taught in high school.

3. The council will propose ways by which a high school can adjust its curriculum to include the desired economic education and still preserve a satisfactory general-education program. It will assist local schools to get representative citizens to consider the need for improving economic education.

4. The council will assemble economic information decided to be essential and indicate sources from which desired additional information can be obtained for production of the teaching materials. (There is a large quantity of information about our economy and its functions. Much of it is above or beyond what is essential to all citizens for a workable economic literacy. When agreements are reached on what is essential for citizens to know, offerings and selections can be made from this reservoir of fact.)

5. The council will co-operate with colleges and schools for teacher training to make known what is the consensus of judgment on what all citizens should know about our economy.

These are formidable tasks that the council has set for itself. They run head-on into perennial problems of curriculum construction—the determination of objectives and the organi-

zation of learning experiences—that the council certainly does not expect to solve completely. One of the issues is the wisdom of attempting to determine minimum essentials for *all* citizens in contrast to suggesting different sets of requirements for identifiable groups of individuals, and thus recognizing explicitly the empirical fact of varying individual needs.

This statement of the council's tasks recognizes that much of the knowledge which at the outset may be classified as essential will in the end have to be rejected because including it will not be feasible. The "desired economic education" should not be viewed as special education but as a part of general education. Consequently the phrase "preserve a satisfactory general-education program" in the third task outlined above probably means "preserve a satisfactory *balance* in the general-education program." Since it is doubtful that this can be achieved by simply adding one or more new courses in economic education to the curriculum, it will be interesting to see how far the council will go in the direction of fitting its program into a "core-curriculum" organization.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. FRANCIS S. CHASE, chairman of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago and director of the Midwest Administration Center, urges a program of increased co-operation among those interested in research in education and the pooling of efforts to create public understanding of the social gains which await the fuller application of research to education. BERT D. ANDERSON, associate professor of psychology at Southern State College, Magnolia, Arkansas, suggests viewpoints, attitudes, and approaches which persons interested in promoting a counseling and placement plan for youth would find it well to examine. JOSEPH JUSTMAN, research assistant for the Bureau of Educational Research of the Board of Education of the City of New York, compares the achievements in senior high school of pupils who had and who had not attended special-progress classes in junior high school grades. T. B. SENNETT, assistant director of the Illinois State High School Press Association, operating under the sponsorship of the

University of Illinois School of Journalism and Communications, suggests a re-evaluation of the English curriculum in order to give adequate attention to the mass media of communication—press, motion picture, magazine, and broadcasting media. HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education at Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama, gives the results of a study to determine ways in which junior colleges rank or classify their faculties, the extent to which tenure may be acquired, and the composition of faculties as to sex. FRANCES SWINEFORD, head of the Test Analysis Section of the Department of Statistical Analysis of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, presents a list of selected references on statistics, the theory of test construction, and factor analysis.

Reviewers of books WILLIAM CLARK TROW, professor of educational psychology, University of Michigan. V. HOWARD TALLEY, assistant professor of music, University of Chicago. ASAHIEL D. WOODRUFF, dean, College of Education, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah. ROBERT E. KEOHANE, chairman of the Department of Social Sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois.

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THE STATUS OF RESEARCH IN EDUCATION¹

FRANCIS S. CHASE

University of Chicago



EDUCATION, in common with other social sciences, suffers from a double lag: slow progress in fundamental research and delay in using research findings. Perhaps the disease is even more pronounced in education than in the other social sciences. Certainly it is more devastating in its effects because malfunctioning of education endangers the health of the whole society.

The founding fathers of the republic placed such value upon an educated electorate that they attempted, in one way or another, to restrict the ballot to those classes presumed to be most literate. Universal suffrage became supportable only on a foundation of universal education. But universal education is a shaky foundation for civic responsibility in the modern world unless the educative process is made constantly more effective by the application of research. Our best hope for security, abundance, and freedom lies in educational programs of a scope and quality not achieved as yet in

even our most favored communities. Such programs can be developed only through the highest type of research and through speedy translation of the findings into schoolroom practice.

Reasons for the relatively late start and slow progress of research in education are not hard to find. Many are identified in the excellent discussion of educational research in the October, 1953, issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*.² Aside from difficulties common to all the social sciences, there are problems peculiar to education. Most of these spring from the unique functions of education as a transmitter of the cultural heritage and a forerunner of social change. Education is thus established in the public domain and constantly under the scrutiny of the public eye. Studies of education, consequently, are peculiarly dependent upon public consent and make unusually heavy demands upon public understanding.

A LACK OF SUPPORT

Research in education has not commanded sufficient time and talent because of lack of the necessary financial

¹Address delivered at the Conference on Applying Research in Educational Administration held at the University of Chicago, July 19-23, 1954, under the sponsorship of the Midwest Administration Center, Co-operative Program in Educational Administration.

²"Educational Research: A New View," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXV (October, 1953), 1-79.

resources. It has been short of financial support largely because there is little effective demand for its products. Business corporations prize the products of research applicable to industry and invest large funds to obtain them. Commercial interests find chemical, physical, and biological scientists so useful that, according to the January, 1953, issue of *Industrial Research and Development*, there were 94,000 professional research workers and 140,000 supporting personnel employed in some 2,000 different industries of the nation, at a cost to industry of about two billion dollars. Public funds flow with relative readiness into research in agriculture because there is substantial public demand for the products of such research. A comparison of federal government expenditures for research in education and agriculture will establish the point.

If you think the comparison is unfair because education is regarded as a ward of the states rather than of the federal government, take a look at the appropriations to state departments of education for research purposes. According to a 1950 report of the United States Office of Education, twenty-nine state departments had less than one full-time staff member handling research and statistics; and seven states had less than one man-month of staff time given annually to research and statistics.³ The state institutions of higher learning often fare

but little better. In many of them research gets only the crumbs of time left from the full-time teaching load of instructors, plus the amateur efforts of graduate students.

Under existing circumstances, I marvel not that research in education is so inadequate but that so much is being done so well. The concern of all educators is that the difficulties in the way of educational research should be treated not as excuses for inadequate research but as obstacles to be overcome.

USE OF NEW KNOWLEDGE

In my mind, the problem of obtaining the needed research is inseparably linked with the problem of getting research results used in our schools and colleges. The demand for additional research products is not likely to grow while consumption lags so far behind present production. The typical fifty-year interval between the discovery of new knowledge and its widespread use in the schools must somehow be shortened.

The paucity of research reports and the density of the language found in many such reports are not the only causes of the lag in translating research into school practice. From his vantage point, any educational administrator can extend the list. I was impressed by the conclusions reached by Johnson in 1949 after a sampling of school administrators through questionnaires and interviews. He reported that the majority of school administrators are not satisfied with what re-

³ Fred F. Beach, *The Functions of State Departments of Education*, p. 49. United States Office of Education Misc. No. 12, 1950.

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search workers are contributing to help them improve their school programs and that they are not using much of the information provided by research. He ended his summary of findings with this:

Since administrators are kept so busy with administrative details and want changes based on a sure foundation, they want brief, simplified, and conclusive research which points to practices which have been tested beyond question. They want these reports compiled or organized into handbooks according to problems, subjects, or school level, so that they can be used with a minimum of effort.⁴

Before you applaud that statement too vigorously, let me give you another from an article by Walter R. Borg:

No matter how much effort is put forth to make research readable and accessible, unless we develop in our teachers and administrators a scientific attitude and encourage the maintenance of this attitude in the field, research will never have a marked effect upon the practices of the classroom teacher.⁵

You would now be justified in pitching the ball back with the query: Who is responsible for this alleged naïveté of the potential users of educational research if not the universities and colleges which prepare the teachers and administrators?

Let the indictment come to rest

⁴Loaz W. Johnson, "What Administrators Want and Will Use from Research Workers," *Growing Points in Educational Research*, pp. 10-11. Official Report, American Educational Research Association. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1949.

⁵Walter R. Borg, "Teachers as Intelligent Consumers of Research," *School and Society*, LXXIII (June 9, 1951), 357-59.

there. I, for one, am willing to concede that universities bear a major responsibility for the inadequacies of educational research, for the "fuzziness" of research reports, and for failure to inculcate an understanding of research and how it may be put to use in educational practice. We shall not, however, cure the lag by mutual recrimination.

TRANSLATING RESEARCH INTO ACTION

We might as well begin by recognizing the peculiar problems of translating research into use in education. In industry, translation may take place through the creation of machines or the development of a synthetic fiber. In agriculture, it may take place through varying the formula for fertilizer or changing the feed of livestock. In these cases, social resistance is comparatively slight and tends to yield before demonstrated gains in production and profits. In education, translation means changing the behavior of human beings and/or modifying cherished institutions. Research findings must be assimilated into the central nervous systems of persons before they can become effective. In many cases, translation is dependent not only upon psychological processes but also upon social and political processes. For example, the findings of research on individual differences in learning called for changes in teaching methods which could take place only through the development of understanding, insights, and changed modes of behavior on the part of teachers.

At the same time they called also for changes in the organization of curriculums, in class size, and in policies for grouping and promotion of pupils. Many of these changes could take place only through public acceptance or active public support. Some of them could be given effect only through increased financing that required political action.

I have spent too much time already diagnosing the double lag in research and research translation. The important question is: What can we do about it? Or even more important, what *should* we do about it?

WHAT SHOULD WE DO?

It seems to me that we need (1) to weld a partnership of those interested in doing research and those concerned in using the products of research and (2) to combine our efforts to create public understanding of the great social gains which await the fuller application of research to education. If we can thus create a market for the products of research in education, increased consumption will foster improved production. Financial support will then be increased, and more time and talent can be allotted to the development of rigorous scientific procedures which can be used for fruitful study of crucial problems in education.

In searching for ways of achieving our objectives, we ought to examine points at which progress is now being made. Within the universities some progress has been made in obtaining

an interdisciplinary approach to the study of problems in education. The impressive research in child growth and development was made possible through the combined efforts of research workers from education, psychology, biology, and other sciences. We need more such pooling of effort.

The numerous action-research programs, while sometimes weak in scientific techniques and in the definition of problems, point the way to better research teamwork between research specialists from higher institutions and the staffs of elementary and secondary schools. Participation in planning and conducting studies may well stimulate an appetite for the fruits of research.

THE CO-OPERATIVE PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

One of the most hopeful signs on the horizon is the success that has been achieved by the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration. This program, sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators and supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is a great national effort operating through eight regional centers located at the University of Chicago, Harvard University, Ohio State University, George Peabody College for Teachers, Teachers College of Columbia University, Stanford University, the University of Oregon, and the University of Texas. This is a genuinely co-operative program involving the collaboration of state departments of education, uni-

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versities and colleges, professional organizations, school-board associations, and citizens' groups. It is heartening to note how effective this program has become in translating research into practice. A few examples of developments at the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago will give you the basis for my optimism.

The first example is the remarkable success of the *Administrator's Notebook*, a four-page leaflet, issued monthly by the Midwest Administration Center, which deals with key problems in educational administration in the light of relevant research. Reports last year from 1,400 midwestern administrators indicate that it is filling a real need. More than 1,100 users reported that it was the source of ideas which were applicable to their situation. Specific improvements traceable to the *Notebook* were reported by 369 readers. The changes cited included improvement of staff meetings, better public relations, improved teacher morale, greater participation in educational planning, and more effective board operation.

A second example is an improved conference technique, which encourages the application of research to educational problems. Of 190 individuals evaluating conferences held last summer at the University of Chicago under the direction of the Center, over 90 per cent reported they had obtained ideas which they intended to apply in their school situations, and over 80 per cent said the conferences

suggested solutions to problems that they were meeting in administration.

Third, many state departments of education are evaluating and improving their consultative services to local school systems. These evaluations are based on studies made by the Center, with the co-operation of twelve state departments of education and more than a thousand school administrators.

Fourth, research is being applied to the improvement of school-board operation. The findings of a "critical incidents" study of effective school-board membership have been used for self-evaluation by hundreds of school-board members and applied by a number of citizens' groups in school-board elections.

Fifth, in Michigan, newspapers and school administrators are applying the findings of community surveys to the improvement of educational reporting and school-community relations. This is an ongoing action-research program sponsored by the Michigan Association of School Administrators and the Michigan Press Association and using resources of the Midwest Administration Center and of the schools of education, business administration, and social science, and the departments of sociology, anthropology, and journalism, of Michigan State College. The research findings are translated immediately into action programs to increase public understanding and raise the level of policy decisions affecting education.

Sixth, school systems in Illinois,

Ohio, and Michigan are co-operating in studies of conditions related to the effectiveness of instruction. Through collaboration in these studies, hundreds of administrators and teachers are gaining skill in defining problems, obtaining agreement on objectives, and establishing programs for the continuing growth of teachers. They are learning also how to apply the considerable body of research on the school curriculum.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

As we survey the current status of educational administration and reflect upon what we have learned in four years' work at the Midwest Administration Center, we are convinced that the field has been prepared for developments of great consequence for American education, as well as for the practice of public administration. Among the incipient developments which we believe would be especially fruitful, if properly nourished, are:

1. *The rounding-out of a social theory of administration which will guide both practice and research.* The outlines of such a theory are already apparent, but the details need to be filled in by a group of highly motivated persons who will test the projections of their imagination through research and practice. Then the theory must be communicated so that it may become a guide for action to those engaged in administration. Some of the assumptions on which such a theory of administration may be built are:

- a) Administration is a process through which several persons are enabled to pool their efforts to achieve common purposes.

- b) The school, or other organized enterprise, is a social structure which is susceptible to some degree of modification by administration.

- c) Administration maximizes the achievement of purposes by modifying the social situation in such ways as to motivate the productive efforts of persons.

- d) Motivation may be increased by arranging the work situation so that contributions to the purposes of the enterprise produce equivalent ego satisfactions for the persons concerned.

2. *The clarification of administrative functions, roles, and effects through experimentation and research.* We need additional research to test emerging theories, especially theories related to morale and motivation of persons. We also need studies to clarify further such roles in administration as:

- a) the deliberative, or policy-making, role

- b) the executive, or giving-effect-to-policy, role

- c) the consultative, or advising-on-the-basis-of-special-knowledge, role

- d) the evaluative, or calculating-the-effects, role.

Likewise, we need to study further the factors which influence public policy and to learn more about how public opinion and policy decisions are affected by the content and the channels of communications.

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3. *Vigorous application of present knowledge and accumulating theory and research to the selection and preparation of persons for administrative roles.* The prevailing pattern of preparation for educational administration places too much emphasis on differentiated preparation for specific positions, such as the high-school principalship, the director of guidance, or the city superintendency, and too little emphasis on preparation for differentiated functions or roles, such as that of consultant or co-ordinator. It also overemphasizes techniques at the expense of basic concepts of society, the school, and administration. Moreover, insufficient attention has been given to identification of potential administrative ability as a basis for selecting persons for positions and for training. To attack these problems at the source, attention must be given to the selection and preparation of persons for professors of administration in leading universities.

4. *The re-education of those now engaged in administration through more effective use of a combination of conferences, discussion groups, publications, audio-visual presentations, and consultative service.* The emerging theory of administration, the findings of research, and other knowledge about administration and education must be translated into practice by applying all that we know about communications and the changing of human behavior.

5. *Extensive modification of the struc-*

ture through which education is provided. The reorganization of administrative units is only one of many aspects needing attention. Even more fundamental, perhaps, is the need for devising new bases for the grouping of pupils, the organization of schools, and the creation of instructional teams within schools. In the grouping of pupils, emphasis should be given to flexible grouping on the basis of readiness for given types of learning experiences in order to provide continuous, sequential development of the individuals concerned. In the organization of schools, school-community relationships and the social and mental maturity of the children should be paramount considerations. In the creation of small instructional teams, consideration should be given to functional interdependence and the morale and effectiveness of the instructional staff.

PARTNERSHIP

I have drawn illustrations largely from the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration in the mid-west because of my knowledge of the work of the Midwest Administration Center. Equally good examples could be selected from the developments in other regions. Through the work of the eight co-operating centers, and the co-operating organizations, agencies, and institutions, two major gains are being made. (1) We are getting better and more practical research—research growing out of real problems encountered in the administration of our

schools and designed to provide information for policy decisions and action programs. (2) We are getting immediate application of research findings to organization, administration, and instruction.

These results are possible only because the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration is a partnership arrangement involving the close collaboration of public school teachers, administrators, and board members; the personnel of state departments of education; and the faculties of colleges and universities. It is a

partnership made possible because of the active sponsorship of the American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, and the National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents. The development is promising. It must continue, and the partnership arrangement must be extended to other areas of research directed toward the improvement of education from the nursery schools through the graduate departments and professional schools of the universities.

OBSTACLES ENCOUNTERED IN ORGANIZING COMMUNITY COUNSELING AND PLACE- MENT SERVICES FOR YOUTH

BERT D. ANDERSON

Southern State College, Magnolia, Arkansas



PRESENT counseling and placement services for high-school graduates are discouragingly inadequate, especially in the case of those who enter the labor market on a permanent basis. Guidance workers have long regarded job placement and vocational counseling as an essential part of the school's personnel program. Relatively few institutions, however, have successfully met the counseling and placement needs of their graduating students. This fact even becomes somewhat ironical when we recall that our earliest guidance programs stressed vocational adjustment.

This conspicuous lack of professional counseling and placement services for the recent high-school graduate leads to the conclusion that traditional viewpoints and procedures should be carefully analyzed and consideration given to new approaches for solving this problem. There is some evidence of attempts to meet the vocational needs of recent high-school graduates and other young workers by using a community approach rather than by leaving this

responsibility to a single institution, such as the school or the employment service. My experience in helping to organize and in operating a community-sponsored counseling and placement center has led me to the belief that this type of approach is one feasible means of providing these services to our out-of-school youth.¹ This experience also indicated that certain obstacle-producing viewpoints, attitudes, and approaches must be recognized by almost any group wishing to establish such a service. School personnel, employment-service officials, and other persons interested in promoting the community counseling and placement plan will find it helpful to re-examine certain of their own viewpoints, attitudes, and approaches which might prevent the organization and operation of such a service.

The purpose of this paper is to identify and discuss briefly the possible obstacles to organization of a com-

¹ For a description of this program, see E. A. Morelli, "Salt Lake City's Youth Counseling and Placement Center," *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*, I (Spring, 1953), 10-11.

munity counseling and placement service for the recent high-school graduate. The discussion is based on the assumption that school and state employment services will provide the main support for, and occupy strategic positions in, the organization and operation of this community program.

OBSTACLES ARISING FROM VIEW-POINTS AND ATTITUDES

A serious obstacle arises from the viewpoint held by educators, including guidance workers, that the school is the most logical place from which to operate a counseling and placement service for the high-school graduate. This traditional concept has an admirable philosophical foundation; but, for the following reasons, the school is often an unnatural base from which to operate such a program:

1. In urban centers an effective school placement program will duplicate many services already established in the state employment offices.

2. Most school districts cannot finance an elaborate program. If by themselves they offer any service at all, it is usually inadequate and, to some extent, represents a frittering-away of manpower that could be better utilized in the community-sponsored plan.

3. Employer convenience is not always recognized in a school-centered plan, as the employer will find it necessary to contact several schools for applicants instead of being able to place one call to a central office.

4. To create a counseling and placement center for youth apart from placement services already established for adults makes the youth center an artificial entity.

Employers do not necessarily think of age levels when they hire an employee. They are more inclined to consider whether he can perform the duties required by the job. The significant point here is that a youth center sitting off by itself will not receive so many job orders as will one attached to the regular employment service.

5. When the student graduates, he is, in a very realistic sense, making a break from school and attempting to assume an adult role in the community. He often may not wish to return to the school setting for counseling or guidance but would rather utilize services that are established by the community for those adults wishing to use them.

Another obstacle arises from the fact that the educator has considered the school and its immediate setting as his only domain. There is a reluctance on the part of school people to become entangled in any alliances outside the well-defined school boundaries. Community agencies interested in providing counseling and placement services for out-of-school youth find the educator hesitant about doing more than giving the community placement program his blessing. In spite of the fact that the schools have done little to provide counseling and placement services for their graduates, they have given little attention to the possibility of utilizing community resources in establishing such a service.

Another obstacle arises because some educators do not recognize that any successful counseling and placement program for youth depends upon their co-operation. They hold

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the key to an effective program since the school has nearly all the vital information needed to do a professional counseling job with the applicant. Unless the high-school record is made available to the community agency, a counseling program for the high-school graduate is crippled. The educator is justified, however, in withholding the student's record when the community agency is not staffed by professionally trained counselors. Probably because the educator is subject to public criticism, he finds it more comfortable to maintain the role of spectator rather than player until the venture proves fruitful.

The fact that educators have not grasped the magnitude of the placement and follow-up problem has been a serious obstacle and has resulted in a misuse and frittering-away of manpower. Ill-conceived and inadequate plans, such as paying a counselor extra money to stay at the school during the summer months to operate a placement service, have resulted in failure or have had disappointing results so far as providing service to the graduate is concerned. Such plans do not recognize the tremendous task involved in an adequate program. Providing counseling services, making field visits to solicit job openings, gathering labor-market information, and taking useful applications require a sizable staff. The outright failure of school-sponsored placement programs to function properly has also caused some administrators to

be skeptical of this phase of the personnel program. There are few school systems in the United States today that can, without using community resources, commit themselves to a realistic, comprehensive counseling and placement service for all graduates entering the labor market on a permanent basis.

The high-school counselor sometimes views the community counseling and placement plan with apprehension and confusion. This attitude is not a reflection upon the school counselor but points out a serious weakness in many counselor-training programs. Colleges, by and large, have omitted special training in the job-placement area. As a result the typical high-school counselor may not clearly visualize the role he must play in organizing and operating an effective counseling and placement service for the recent graduate.

OBSTACLES ARISING FROM PROCEDURES

Not all the obstacles are a result of educational practices or attitudes. The state employment services occupy the other key position in establishing the community counseling and placement center. They have, in some instances, followed policies which discouraged co-operative programs. Perhaps the most serious obstacle of all has been their failure in some states to require special classifications and training requirements for their vocational counselors. Educators will con-

tinue to be hesitant about giving out test information and other pertinent data in the cumulative record until the persons employed as counselors in the community counseling centers have had graduate counseling training. In the realistic community program, the major part of the counseling and placement service is carried on within the employment service with their personnel. This fact makes it necessary for employment-service administrators to examine and raise their training requirements for counselors.

Possibly one of the most difficult obstacles of all to overcome from a procedural standpoint is the keeping of the proposed center from becoming a catch-all for community problems. If the center gets this sort of reputation, the high-school graduate will not patronize the center and the objective of providing counseling and placement services for him will not be attained. Employers will soon look elsewhere for employees if they find that applicants are being sent

them for therapeutic reasons. It is imperative for all community social agencies to co-operate in preventing the proposed center from developing a reputation as a catch-all.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The problem of properly counseling and placing our recent high-school graduates will probably become more acute as labor supply exceeds demand. It is plausible to believe that personnel workers will be asked to suggest some means of providing this service. The community counseling and placement program is one realistic approach to the problem. Although the program requires additional funds for the employment office, it is a relatively inexpensive means of providing the needed services to youth. The development of a program of this nature is not prevented so much by the added financial costs as by the failure of the community to submit its attitudes, viewpoints, and procedures to close scrutiny, and even to change some of them if necessary.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED ACCELERANTS AND NON-ACCELERANTS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

JOSEPH JUSTMAN

Board of Education of the City of New York



AS ONE WAY of meeting the challenge presented by intellectually gifted children in New York City, special classes are formed in which such children complete the normal span of junior high school work in two, rather than three, years. These classes enrol children with intelligence quotients of 130 and higher who show superior academic achievement. Pupils selected for admission must also possess personal characteristics of initiative, enthusiasm, willingness to work, reliability, regular attendance, and capacity for sustained work.

In previous comparison of the academic achievement of intellectually gifted pupils enrolled in special-progress and normal-progress classes in junior high schools,¹ it was noted that, in general, only minor differences were found in the functioning of matched pairs of pupils drawn from the two types of classes at the end of two years of junior high school work. The segregation of intellectually gifted pupils in special classes was accom-

panied by significant gain in the areas of mathematics and science. A consideration of personal and social adjustment, however, failed to reveal appreciable differences in patterns of response between special-progress and normal-progress pupils.²

Since these studies were limited to a survey of pupil functioning on the junior high school level, it was felt that it would be of interest to investigate the relative status of comparable groups of intellectually gifted pupils in senior high schools as well. The present study follows groups of intellectually gifted accelerants and non-accelerants through the second and third years of senior high school. Practical considerations made it necessary to limit the study to four schools enrolling comparatively large numbers of intellectually gifted pupils.

PROCEDURE

In order to identify the intellectually gifted pupils attending the four schools, the cumulative-record cards

¹ Joseph Justman, "Academic Achievement of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High School," *School Review*, LXII (March, 1954), 142-50.

² Joseph Justman, "Personal and Social Adjustment of Intellectually Gifted Accelerants and Non-accelerants in Junior High Schools," *School Review*, LXI (November, 1953), 468-78.

of all pupils enrolled in the third term in September, 1951, were examined. The necessary data concerning achievement in the tenth and eleventh school years, as measured by final marks and marks on state-wide Regents' examinations, were abstracted for all pupils with intelligence quotients of 130 and over. In addition, the school discharge

TABLE 1

EQUIVALENCE IN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT
AND DIFFERENCE IN CHRONOLOGICAL
AGE OF ACCELERANTS AND NON-ACCEL-
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GROUP	NUM- BER	MEAN	
		Intelli- gence Quotient	Chrono- logical Age (in Months)
Junior high school special progress...	176	142.3	168.7
Elementary school normal progress...	176	142.3	180.5
Difference.....		0.0	11.8
Junior high school: Special progress...	60	138.8	167.7
Normal progress...	60	138.9	179.7
Difference.....		0.1	12.0

records were checked to determine whether any pupils who could properly be classified as intellectually gifted had left the school during these two years. In such cases, data concerning marks were obtained for their period of attendance.

It proved to be possible to identify a relatively large group of accelerants, all of whom had attended special-progress classes in junior high schools, and a smaller group of non-

accelerants. These non-accelerants, in turn, could be divided into two groups: one which had completed an eight-year elementary school and one year of high school, and a second which had completed the normal three-year course of study of the junior high school. In general, of course, the group of non-accelerants was older than the accelerated group, which had "saved" one year by virtue of having completed the special-progress course in junior high school.

This age differential was preserved in forming equivalent groups of accelerants and non-accelerants. Matching of pupils was accomplished by selecting pairs, one from each group, who were approximately equal in intelligence quotient and who differed by approximately one year in chronological age. The intelligence quotients obtained through the administration of the Pintner General Ability Test, which was utilized as one of the measures in the city-wide survey of intelligence and achievement at the time these pupils were in Grade VIII of either the elementary or junior high school, served as the basis for matching pupils in intellectual status. Matched pairs, of course, attended the same high school and were of the same sex.

EQUIVALENCE OF GROUPS

The adequacy of the equivalence of the accelerated and non-accelerated groups in intelligence quotient and of the difference in chronological age is established in Table 1. In the case of both groups of accelerated and non-

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accelerated pupils, there is no difference in mean intelligence quotient. The contrasted groups, too, show relatively little variation in chronological age from the difference of twelve months which was set as the standard for matching. It is evident, without extensive analysis, that the equivalence of the accelerated and the non-accelerated groups is satisfactory.

FINDINGS

Final marks.—In general, the tenth-year programs of the pupils involved in this study are relatively uniform. Each pupil completes one year of work in the following areas: English, mathematics, foreign language, and biological science. In three of the schools, a course in social studies is also completed; in the other, a year of physical science is completed.

In the eleventh year considerable variation is noted. Some pupils are introduced to a second foreign language, and others elect a second physical science. The sequence of social-studies courses also differs in the four schools. Since it would be of little value to contrast the achievement of groups of pupils who had completed similar courses at different times, only pupils enrolled in the same courses at the same time were compared.

Table 2 compares the mean final marks of accelerated pupils drawn from junior high school special-progress classes with those of non-accelerants drawn from both elementary-school and junior high school normal-progress classes. In general, the differences between the contrasted groups

are small, rarely exceeding three points. Upon analysis, only three of the obtained differences prove to be statistically significant. In two of these three instances, the obtained differences favor the group drawn from special-progress classes. It is evident that, when final marks are used as a criterion, acceleration of intellectually gifted pupils by one year in junior high schools does not result in lowered academic achievement in senior high school.

Marks on Regents' examinations.—A similar comparison of marks on statewide Regents' examinations is presented in Table 3. Here, too, the differences between the contrasted groups are small. None of the obtained differences reach a statistically significant level. When marks on Regents' examinations are used as a criterion, acceleration of intellectually gifted pupils by one year in junior high school does not result in lowered academic achievement in senior high school.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In order to determine whether acceleration of intellectually gifted pupils on the junior high school level results in lowered academic achievement in senior high school, the cumulative-record cards of intellectually gifted accelerants and non-accelerants enrolled in four New York City high schools were examined. Matched groups of accelerants and non-accelerants were formed by selecting pairs of pupils who were approximately equal in intelligence quotients and

who differed by approximately one year in chronological age. It proved to be possible to match 176 pupils who had completed the junior high school course in two years with an equivalent group which had completed the usual eight-year elementary school and one year of high school. In addition, a smaller group of 60 accelerants who had completed

TABLE 2
MEAN FINAL MARKS OF MATCHED ACCELERANTS AND NON-ACCELERANTS

SUBJECT	PUPILS FROM JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL				PUPILS FROM JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL			
	Number of Matched Pairs	Mark of Accelerants	Mark of Non-accelerants	Difference	Number of Matched Pairs	Mark of Accelerants	Mark of Non-accelerants	Difference
Tenth year:								
English 3.....	176	86.8	87.3	-0.5	60	86.6	86.2	0.4
English 4.....	175	86.8	87.3	-.5	59	86.9	86.7	.2
World history 1...	91	83.6	84.7	-1.1	23	84.2	87.2	-3.0
World history 2...	91	84.9	86.2	-1.3	23	82.7	86.5	-3.8
Biology 1.....	132	86.7	88.5	-1.8	30	85.2	86.3	-1.1
Biology 2.....	132	90.7	90.5	.2	30	89.2	90.2	-1.0
Chemistry 1.....	46	84.9	88.4	-3.5	33	86.8	87.5	-.7
Chemistry 2.....	46	86.7	88.7	-2.0	33	88.5	89.3	-.8
Tenth-year mathematics 1.....	102	87.7	88.1	-.4	42	85.1	83.8	1.3
Tenth-year mathematics 2.....	101	87.8	88.9	-1.1	42	85.9	84.4	1.5
French 3.....	42	84.5	87.1	-2.6	19	77.8	83.5	-5.7*
French 4.....	42	83.2	86.4	-3.2	19	75.8	76.2	-.4
Spanish 3.....	18	79.8	82.3	-2.5				
Spanish 4.....	18	80.3	83.4	-3.1				
Eleventh year:								
English 5.....	172	87.3	87.6	-.3	58	87.9	87.9	.0
English 6.....	171	87.0	86.5	.5	55	85.9	86.4	-.5
World history 1...	52	84.8	84.9	-.1	29	84.2	81.8	2.4
World history 2...	51	87.2	89.4	-2.2	27	88.5	86.4	2.1
American history 1...	88	87.4	86.2	1.2	22	84.5	89.2	-4.7
American history 2...	88	89.3	88.9	.4	19	86.7	89.5	-2.8
Eleventh-year mathematics 1...	43	87.1	87.5	-.4	31	88.0	82.5	5.5*
Eleventh-year mathematics 2...	42	87.9	87.5	.4	26	88.7	85.5	3.2
Intermediate algebra.....	89	87.1	86.8	.3	21	84.1	84.1	.0
Trigonometry.....	74	89.0	84.0	5.0*	18	87.9	86.2	1.7
Physics 1.....	46	84.9	86.2	-1.3	34	83.5	82.1	1.4
Physics 2.....	45	88.6	88.4	.2	33	86.4	86.5	-.1
Chemistry 1.....	54	84.2	80.1	4.1	10	83.0	82.0	1.0
Chemistry 2.....	53	86.2	82.0	4.2	10	81.2	85.1	-3.9
French 5.....	40	83.9	86.6	-2.7	17	75.5	79.8	-4.3
French 6.....	40	85.1	87.5	-2.4	17	78.4	82.9	-4.5
Spanish 5.....	17	79.9	82.0	-2.1				
Spanish 6.....	17	86.1	87.6	-1.5				

* Significant at the .05 level.

the junior high school course in two years was matched with a group of non-accelerants who had completed the normal three-year course of study of the junior high school.

When both final marks and scores

special-progress class on the junior high school level can, and do, maintain themselves in academic achievement in senior high school. The same degree of mastery in the academic areas to which attention was directed

TABLE 3
MEAN MARKS ON REGENTS' EXAMINATIONS OF MATCHED
ACCELERANTS AND NON-ACCELERANTS

SUBJECT	PUPILS FROM JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL				PUPILS FROM JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL			
	Number of Matched Pairs	Mark of Acceler- ants	Mark of Non-ac- celerants	Differ- ence	Number of Matched Pairs	Mark of Acceler- ants	Mark of Non-ac- celerants	Differ- ence
Tenth year:								
Biology.....	128	92.0	92.4	-0.4	29	91.7	92.4	-0.7
Tenth-year mathe- matics.....	101	89.3	88.0	1.3	41	89.3	88.7	.6
Chemistry.....	46	88.8	88.7	.1	33	89.1	88.2	.9
Eleventh year:								
Eleventh-year mathematics....	42	82.7	83.0	-.3	26	84.3	79.4	4.9
Algebra.....	89	84.4	84.5	-.1	20	82.3	82.3	.0
Chemistry.....	53	86.7	84.5	2.2	9	82.0	86.2	-4.2
Physics.....	45	85.2	86.3	-1.1	29	83.8	85.7	-1.9
French.....	40	83.9	86.8	-2.9	16	81.1	84.1	-3.0
Spanish.....	16	85.8	85.1	0.7				

on Regents' examinations were used as criteria of academic achievement in senior high school, only minor differences were found between groups of accelerants and non-accelerants. Evidently, intellectually gifted pupils who have been accelerated by one year through attendance in a

is shown by accelerants despite the fact that they are a year younger, on the average, than equally gifted non-accelerants. This saving of one year without loss constitutes a strong argument for the retention of special-progress classes in the junior high school organizational framework.

REORIENTING THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM TOWARD COMMUNICATION

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WHEN high-school English teachers get together for a little shop talk these days, the odds are that before very long the term *communication* creeps into the conversation. The only justification for such an unremarkable observation is that the discussions do not involve *communication* as the word has been used by many of our predecessors in English education. It currently has taken on connotations distinctive from the traditional concept of "communication arts," the inculcating of formalized reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills in the minds of secondary-school students.

Paradoxically, the more the term is analyzed at meetings of English teachers and elsewhere, the less comprehension there seems to be. Some teachers have confessed leaving these sessions or putting down the books or periodicals on the subject with a sense of frustration at the nebulous implications in many of the current discussions of communication. Such observations raise a significant question: Why should this perfectly respectable term, one which for so long has been part of the English teacher's vocabu-

lary and professional life, create such turmoil?

UNDervaluation OF THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION

I suggest that the answer to the question lies in failure to grasp the significance of the role of mass communication in contemporary society. In almost every orbit of life, the mass media of communication are recognized as powerful agents, for good or for bad. In general terms, the English teacher's discomfort at encountering the word *communication* can be attributed at least partly to a double standard. He accepts the philosophy of meeting the needs of his students and of the function of the school as an experience for preparing students for participation in society, but all the while he neglects the influential operation of the mass media in the child's environment.

The economics class learns, before anything else, that this is a century of mass production, mass distribution, and mass consumption, and the student at the beginning of the semester becomes aware of what these terms mean to him. The geography class un-

derstands early in the course that last year's map is as obsolete as last century's. In physics we no longer discuss the indestructibility of the atom. The secretary in training practices on an electric typewriter and multicolor duplicating machines. Home-economics laboratories are equipped with the most modern electric devices. As we go through the curriculum course by course, we see evidences of readjustment to the program of modern living.

The English teacher, however, has neglected this principle of adaptation. His principal stock in trade, communication, is taught along the traditional lines of generations ago. There are some exceptions, of course: he has put remedial-reading programs into the curriculum; he uses tape recorders for speech therapy; and he has available numerous audio-visual facilities, although the inadequacy of their use is common knowledge. But he has failed to come to terms with the problem of modern communication. He has not recognized that it is, before everything else, a social process. And, like economics, communication behavior today is dominated by its mass nature.

It is a curious phenomenon that the English teacher practices devotion to one of the mass media while virtually ignoring the others. Many decades ago we recognized that an appreciation of literature is one of the most desirable goals in the teaching of English. We developed literature courses, and we required students to read and report on books, the original mass medium. Does it not seem anomalous that we

have rested at that point, especially when the amount of leisure time of adults today—the amount of time available for, and devoted to, communication—is increased greatly over the amount available twenty years ago?

If the arguments that were used to justify training for book-reading were valid, these same arguments are valid today when applied to the other mass media. I do not deprecate the value of book-reading. Nevertheless, the results of recent studies on communication behavior emphasize the need for re-evaluation of the program of communication-teaching. In one well-known study (8) 74 per cent of a group of adults reported that they had not read a single book during the previous month. But 61 per cent said they had seen one or more motion pictures in the same period; 74 per cent reported they listened to the radio for one hour or more on an average weekday evening; 61 per cent read one or more magazines regularly; and 90 per cent read a daily newspaper. Does it not follow from such data (results of numerous other studies are consistent) that, if we are to serve modern society adequately, we are responsible for teaching our students how to use these newer media intelligently?

This is only one of a series of questions which help to localize the educator's relation to the mass media. Are the agencies of communication significant in contemporary life? Do they have a potential for educational utilization? Is training in their use feasible

and beneficial for high-school students? Can the schools provide training in the mass media which would add an increment to current values of English-teaching? Conversely, are they properly understood and used by the public?

SIGNIFICANCE OF COMMUNICATION TODAY

Students of communication theory and practice agree in their attitudes toward such questions, generally submitting two contentions: (1) The public can understand the media better; (2) The public should understand them better. Stuart Chase, a communication pioneer, has described their place in life and in education (1: 11).

So much has been said and done in the field of mass communications that it is difficult for the individual whose special field of interest is remote or peripheral to follow its progress. The profusion of literature in the area within the past decade is exceeded by the volume of books and articles in few other scientific fields. Its variegated interests range from complex engineering problems (communications engineers are responsible for developing information theory) to the most abstract principles of psychology, sociology, and economics. The public, possibly even more than the teacher, has become aware of the failures and successes, weaknesses and strengths in the mass media to which it has been exposed. Studies of mass media have made important contributions to understanding human be-

havior, to the measurement of direction and extent of attitude change, for instance. Their impact has been felt in advertising, journalism, public-opinion polling, propaganda, radio and television programming, magazine publication, business practices, the armed forces—in virtually every area of scientific, industrial, and literary endeavor. The one important exception is in the field of public school education.

Such is the consensus of serious thinkers. Siepmann, whose extensive studies of the problem have been an important contribution, warned educators recently that continued neglect is likely to provoke further an already serious situation:

With the advent of mass communication, the teaching world faces the stiff and enterprising competition for the interest and loyalty of the masses of mankind, of these mass media of communications—films, radio, television, magazines, and the press.

But it is not merely a matter of competition, for the very status and function of education have been profoundly affected and there is, in the opinion of many, an urgent need for the radical overhaul both of the matter and of the manner of curricular instruction. . . .

There has been no conscious, widespread, and concerted effort either to harness the healthy and constructive elements of mass communication to the activities of educators, or to cultivate in students a resistance to their more debilitating influences [11: 95-97].

COMMUNICATION AND THE CURRICULUM

Such admonitions serve notice that the high school, and especially the English curriculum, must embrace

more than the content that has heretofore been taught in the "communication arts." They suggest that teachers re-evaluate their attitudes toward the press, motion picture, magazine, and the broadcasting media. They imply that we must confess where our aversion to the mass media in the curriculum is founded on prejudice, where our rejection of them has been built on rationalizations of inadequate time or access to literature, where our timidity has centered in fear of exposing the plastic minds of adolescents to the assumedly inept writing of "literature in a hurry," where we dread the sacrifice of precious hours from such traditional values as appreciation of the classics. How valid are such arguments, we might ask ourselves, when we equate education of the child with the need for preparing him for mature participation in society?

The student's life is becoming more and more preoccupied with the mass media. We need only look to the impact of television to get a startling picture of what goes on outside the school. Recent studies have reported that elementary-school children sit before their screens from twenty-five to thirty hours per week, while high-school students use the medium from fifteen to twenty hours a week (6). Compute their time investments in radio, newspapers, magazines, and motion pictures. Add to this computation the realization that most of their conception of the world is obtained vicariously through these sources. Those of us who are concerned with helping the child to prepare himself

for life after formal schooling cannot help questioning the discrepancy between the results of such calculations and the education our students receive in the classrooms.

The schools have not, of course, been totally oblivious to the importance of the mass media. Journalism classes, while primarily preoccupied with publication of the school newspaper, still must treat, at least incidentally, such problems as fair presentation of news, discrimination between fact and opinion, and (as many advisers of scholastic publications well know) freedom of expression. Other classes in the English department have used the newspaper and magazine as tools for teaching reading and writing skills, and sometimes unanticipated benefits accrue by some osmotic process. More frequently within the past decade one hears of the insertion of a week's unit in "Newspaper Appreciation" in one of the English courses.

None of these practices seems adequate in the context of the new "communication." We are still too concerned with noun-verb agreement and case of pronouns to get a realistic perspective on communication's social nature, the crucial feature of present-day thinking on the subject.

What, then, is needed in the English curriculum? Siepmann suggests a "radical overhaul both of the matter and of the manner of curricular instruction" (11:95). In more specific terms, this implies a restatement of the aims of the teaching of English and an analysis of existing practices to

reconcile their consistency with these aims. Such codification should acknowledge the fact that understanding the mass media is vital for meeting life in the modern world. It should explicitly state some of the values which can be derived from a study of the media, including such functions as these:

1. Using leisure time profitably
2. Generating a sense of discrimination in values and promoting healthy social and moral standards
3. Establishing principles of guidance for personal and social problems for varying ages, sexes, and economic levels
4. Elevating aesthetic and critical tastes
5. Distinguishing between shades of truth
6. Reinforcing the goals of traditional English-teaching

A program of this scope, of course, is not adopted overnight. It involves long and laborious devotion to the task. During the process, however, teachers can take steps to modernize their point of view. The following suggestions range from general policies to specific recommendations.

1. Accept the fact that the mass media are here to stay, are having an influence one way or another, and have at least as much educational potential as earlier and more conventional school subjects.

2. Become familiar with the implications of modern communication theory and practice by exploring the literature. A surprising amount of material is available; a great deal has already been learned and reported and misapprehensions and uncertainties

dissolve once the resources are scanned. The bibliography at the close of this article is an extremely brief sampling of reading materials. In addition, many periodicals treat the subject, among them: *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, *English Journal*, *Journalism Quarterly*, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, and *Scholastic Editor*.

3. Bear in mind that modern communication is not a simple discipline but a complex mixture of English, psychology, sociology, economics, political science, journalism, and other sciences. The essence of understanding communication as a social phenomenon is knowing how the media interact with the people who use them.

4. Exploit facilities within the existing curricular framework. For instance, journalism classes can be more than laboratory periods for editing the school weekly. The courses can be broadened to attract a larger share of the school population and to include the values and functions of the mass media. Pioneering teachers of English have already formulated units on the mass media, and some of these are described in the literature. Adapt and develop these units to meet your own needs.

5. Call upon organizations for help in developing your curriculum, including the National Association of Teachers of Journalism, the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Scholastic Press Association, and state high school press associa-

tions. Some of these are already active along the lines suggested here.

6. Draw upon the resources in your community. Invite participation by the editor of your newspaper, the manager of your radio station, the head of an advertising agency or public relations firm. These men and women are usually generous with their time and energy and frequently with money when called upon to contribute to the schools.

7. Use the newspaper, radio and television sets, magazine, and motion picture at first hand to illustrate concretely the hypothetical and abstract principles obtained from books, lectures, and discussions.

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RANKING, TENURE, AND SEX OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE FACULTIES

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JUNIOR COLLEGES are, in many respects, the newest organizational unit in the American educational system. Perhaps the variety of organizational patterns among junior colleges is one evidence of newness. Some are organized as parts of high schools; others, as parts of senior colleges or universities; some, as separate and independent two-year institutions; and some, as independent units covering four years. Because of its location on the border between secondary and higher or professional education, one index of the orientation of the junior college might appear in the composition and status of its faculty.

The present study, based on questionnaire data gathered in the spring of 1953, is primarily concerned with ways in which junior colleges classify or rank their faculties and the extent to which tenure may be acquired, with subsidiary reference to the composition of junior-college faculties as to sex. Usable data for some part of the study were secured from 448 junior colleges.

RANKING OF FACULTY MEMBERS

Ranks reported.—Table 1 presents data on the practices of 427 junior col-

leges regarding the methods or systems used in ranking faculty members. Junior colleges are classified into those which have a system of ranking faculty members that is typical among four-year colleges and universities, those which follow more nearly the high-school pattern, and those which have other types of ranking or no ranking at all. It is of interest that the per cent of publicly controlled institutions is much higher in the second group than in the first group. This may be partly owing to the fact that an increasing number of public high schools are being authorized to add Grades XIII and XIV to their educational programs—whether organized as a separate two-year unit or otherwise. The "Other" category covers a wide range of practices, no one of which was extensively reported.

Regional differences are reflected in the numbers of publicly and privately controlled junior colleges which are shown in the different pairs of columns. Regional differences were found to be unimportant in most phases of this study.

If one considers the college and university pattern of ranking faculty members as somewhat more "ortho-

dox" or older in point of time than the other patterns, Table 1 indicates that the privately controlled junior colleges are substantially more orthodox than the publicly controlled institutions. This point is substantiated by data subsequently presented in relation to tenure.

ly more true of the privately controlled institutions. Second in importance is teaching of higher-than-average quality. Quality of teaching is more subtle and difficult to judge than amount of academic training or most of the other factors listed, and the emphasis reported concerning this factor

TABLE 1
SYSTEM OF RANKING FACULTY MEMBERS REPORTED BY 427 JUNIOR COLLEGES
BY TYPE OF SYSTEM, TYPE OF SCHOOL CONTROL, AND
GEOGRAPHICAL REGION

GEOGRAPHICAL REGION	PROFESSOR, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, INSTRUCTOR, AND LECTURER		SAME FACULTY ORGANI- ZATION AND RANKING AS USED IN NEIGHBORING HIGH SCHOOLS		OTHER TYPE OF RANKING OR NO RANK- ING AT ALL	
	Public Control	Private Control	Public Control	Private Control	Public Control	Private Control
New England.....	2	3		1		14
Middle Atlantic.....	8	5			11	13
East North Central.....	5	5	10		12	12
West North Central.....	6	7	29	3	17	6
South Atlantic.....	6	16	2	5	14	31
East South Central.....	3	5	4	6	8	14
West South Central.....	5	2	9		24	8
Mountain.....	4	1	4		12	
Pacific.....	5	3	28	1	34	4
United States						
Number.....	44	47	86	16	132	102
Per cent.....	10.3	11.0	20.1	3.7	30.9	38.6

Factors in ranking faculty members.—Schools were asked to indicate the factors which they considered most important in ranking their faculties. The average ranks assigned these factors appear in Table 2.

Academic training and degrees held by the individual faculty member are shown to be more important than any other single rating factor. This is true of both publicly and privately controlled junior colleges, although slight-

may be more nearly an ideal than an achievement. No important difference appears between teaching experience at junior-college or higher academic levels and the length of service at the particular institution where a faculty member is currently located. Perhaps, in numerous instances, much of the teaching experience at the level concerned has been gained in the junior college at which the individual is currently serving. The data suggest that

junior colleges place little emphasis on research and publications by faculty members or on nonteaching service rendered by faculty members to the community. The somewhat higher ranking of publicly controlled than of privately controlled institutions regarding attention to nonteaching service implies that publicly controlled junior colleges give more attention to

general community activities of faculty members than privately controlled schools give.

In a general sense, however, the table does not reveal any marked or consistent differences between the two types of institutions in regard to the various bases used for rating faculty members.

Reasons for using existing faculty-rating system.—The study also includes information on reasons offered by junior colleges for using the particular system of ranking faculty members which they are using. Data for the 76 institutions supplying usable information on this point appear in Table 2.

The most important reason indicated by the responding junior colleges for using their present systems of rating faculty members is that the systems are fair and appropriate. Tradition seems to be the next most important factor. However, the lack of administrative authority within the junior college to change the system seems important in numerous instances. This would probably be the case among denominational schools in which the individual institution does not determine its policies or among other schools in which the junior college is a part of either a high school or a college or university. Apparently, the idea that a junior college should resemble a senior college or university more closely than a high school is not so popular among publicly as among privately controlled junior colleges.

TABLE 2
AVERAGE OF RANKS GIVEN* BY PUBLICLY AND PRIVATELY CONTROLLED JUNIOR COLLEGES TO FACTORS USED IN RATING FACULTY MEMBERS AND TO REASONS FOR USING THEIR SYSTEMS

Factor Used and Reason for Using	Public Control	Private Control
Factor used:		
Number of colleges responding.....	107	95
Academic training and degrees.....	2.01	1.85
Teaching quality higher than average.....	2.50	2.58
Teaching experience at junior-college level or higher.....	3.28	3.38
Length of service at the institution.....	3.40	3.05
Nonteaching service to community.....	5.07	5.53
Research and publications.....	5.37	5.32
Other.....	6.38	6.28
Reason used:		
Number of colleges responding.....	49	27
Is a fair and appropriate system.....	1.58	1.61
Has long been followed and would be hard to change.....	2.62	2.89
Have no authority to change system.....	2.94	3.09
Junior college should resemble senior college or university more than high school.....	3.38	2.89
Other.....	4.48	4.52

* Rank 1 is the highest ranking.

Probably some of the publicly controlled junior colleges that reported on this item are administratively connected with high schools.

Length of time ranking policies followed.—Data not included in the foregoing tables indicate that 199 junior colleges, 130 publicly and 69 privately controlled, stated that they have followed their present systems of ranking faculty members since the schools were established. However, 55 of the publicly and 35 of the privately controlled schools did not indicate how long this has been. The ages of the other 75 publicly controlled schools are as follows: 15 years or less, 45 schools; 16–40 years, 28 schools; over 40 years, 2 schools. The corresponding figures for the 34 privately controlled schools which indicated their ages are: 15 years or less, 16 schools; 16–40 years, 8 schools; over 40 years, 10 schools.

Seventy-six schools, 34 publicly and 42 privately controlled, stated that they are not at present following the same system of ranking faculty members as that used when the schools were established. Of these schools, 26 of those publicly controlled and 34 of those privately controlled have been established for 15 years or less.

Anticipated change in ranking policies.—The questionnaire asked if the junior colleges anticipated any change in their present systems of ranking faculty members. Of the 347 schools which responded to this question, 296 indicated that they anticipate no

change. Of the remaining 51 schools which anticipate some change, 22 indicate that they will place more emphasis on academic status and achievement. Various other changes are anticipated by the other 29 schools.

The data of the three preceding paragraphs suggest that as a group the junior colleges reporting, both publicly and privately controlled, consider their present systems for ranking faculty members to be rather stable and not likely to change much, although there is substantial variation regarding present practice. Rigidity in this respect could be a handicap to a relatively new and potentially expanding unit in our educational program for American youth. Flexibility is usually an asset for growth, although the way in which faculty members are rated may not be the most important growth factor among junior colleges.

TENURE STATUS OF JUNIOR-COLLEGE FACULTIES

Table 3 presents data on the tenure status of faculty members in 332 junior colleges.

Per cent of junior colleges granting tenure.—The last line of the table shows that in 92 of the public and 62 of the private, or 46.4 per cent of all the 332 junior colleges, faculty members do not acquire tenure. In the other 178 schools, or 53.6 per cent, tenure may be acquired—apparently on the basis of a period of acceptable service. There are 26 additional

schools which stated that faculty members acquire tenure status but did not indicate the basis on which it is acquired. When these 26 schools are added to the 178, it means that 204 out of an augmented total of 358 schools, or 57.0 per cent, grant tenure on some basis. The 26 schools are not included in the table or in the following discussion.

Service necessary to acquire tenure.
—From Table 3 it is not possible to

determine just how long a period of acceptable service is necessary before tenure is granted, but in 129, or 72.5 per cent, of the 178 schools shown in the table that grant tenure, the period is over three years. That is, of those schools which grant tenure, nearly three-fourths do not grant it until the faculty member has served for more than three years. Only 12, or 6.7 per cent, of the 178 grant tenure on the basis of one year of approved service.

TABLE 3

TENURE STATUS OF FACULTIES IN 332 JUNIOR COLLEGES, ACCORDING TO ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGES TO OTHER INSTITUTIONS AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHING DONE BY FACULTY MEMBERS

RELATION TO OTHER INSTITUTIONS AND HIGH-SCHOOL CONNEC- TIONS OF TEACHERS	COLLEGES UNDER PUBLIC CONTROL GRANT TENURE				COLLEGES UNDER PRIVATE CONTROL GRANT TENURE			
	After 1 Year	After 1-3 Years	After Service of Over 3 Years	None	After 1 Year	After 1-3 Years	After Service of Over 3 Years	None
No relation to other institu- tions:								
Some faculty members teach in high school.....		2	2	8	2	6	15	24
No teaching in high school..	1	2	11	15	3	3	22	38
Part of county school system:								
Some faculty members teach in high school.....	1	2	13	8				
No teaching in high school..		1	12	1				
Part of city school system:								
Some faculty members teach in high school.....	2	8	12	35				
No teaching in high school..	2	8	21	11				
Part of state university:								
Some faculty members teach in high school.....	1		2	3				
No teaching in high school..		5	19	11				
All types:								
Some faculty members teach in high school.....	4	12	29	54	2	6	15	24
No teaching in high school..	3	16	63	38	3	3	22	38
Total.....	7	28	92	92	5	9	37	62

Public or private administration in relation to tenure.—By calculation it can be determined that tenure is granted in 58.0 per cent of the 219 publicly controlled junior colleges reporting—in comparison with 45.1 per cent of the 113 privately controlled schools. Part of this difference might reflect state-wide tenure legislation or other regulations governing members of teaching staffs in publicly supported educational institutions generally.

A study of the table shows that a good many publicly controlled junior colleges are parts of county or city school systems. Several are organizationally considered to be parts of state universities. It was suggested earlier that junior colleges which are parts of some more extensive institution or school system might be expected to have less freedom concerning such matters as faculty rating than do junior colleges which are independently organized. The same applies to tenure.

Administrative relations with other institutions.—Calculations from the section of the table reporting junior colleges which have no administrative relations with any other institutions show that usable tenure data were supplied by 154 independently organized junior colleges—both publicly and privately controlled. Of this number, 113, or 73.4 per cent, are privately controlled. It was noted earlier that of these 113 schools, 45.1 per cent grant tenure. Of the 41 publicly controlled junior colleges which are inde-

pendently organized, 43.9 per cent grant tenure. There are 178 publicly controlled junior colleges which are administratively connected with other institutions or school systems. Of these 178 schools, 61.2 per cent grant tenure to faculty members.

It therefore appears, so far as the present study indicates, that there is a better prospect of acquiring tenure on a junior-college faculty when the junior college concerned is administratively connected with a university or with a city or county school system than when the junior college is administratively independent—whether the independent institution is publicly or privately controlled.

Teaching level.—Table 3 also makes it possible to study tenure of junior-college faculty members from the standpoint of whether the faculty member teaches at the high-school level as well as at the junior-college level. Calculations show that some faculty members from each of 146 reporting junior colleges teach at both high-school and junior-college levels, whereas in 186 junior colleges no faculty member does any high-school teaching. Of the 146 schools, 68, or 46.6 per cent, grant tenure; whereas of the 186 schools, 110, or 59.1 per cent, grant tenure. Thus it appears that tenure is more likely to be granted in junior colleges in which faculty members do no teaching at the high-school level, that is, in which the junior college in this respect seems farthest removed from high-school ties.

SEX DISTRIBUTION OF FACULTY
MEMBERS

For the 43 private schools reporting, 59 per cent of the 752 faculty members are men, and in the 44 publicly controlled schools 73 per cent of the 1,366 faculty members are men. These facts are of interest for two reasons. First, a preponderance of the faculty members of high schools are women. Thus, in sex of faculty, the junior colleges resemble senior colleges and universities more nearly than high schools. Second, the fact that the publicly controlled junior colleges have a substantially higher per cent of male faculty members than do the privately controlled institutions is of interest in view of the close relation of many publicly controlled junior colleges to public high schools.

Data compiled but not supplied here in detail show more regional variation among privately than among publicly controlled junior colleges with respect to sex distribution of faculty members. Thus the range in per cent of men is from 31 in the Mountain region to 88 in the Pacific states among privately controlled schools. Among publicly controlled schools the range is from 65 in the West North Central states to 91 in New England. The 44 publicly controlled institutions reported 1,366 faculty members, or 31 per school. The 43 privately controlled colleges reported a total of 752 faculty members, or 17 per school.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

One avenue through which to gain an understanding of the role of the junior college in American education is through a study of its faculty. The system of ranking or evaluating faculty members which an institution uses may have considerable influence on the educational outlook of the faculty as a group, and tenure status may be important from the standpoint of faculty stability and morale.

In regard to systems of ranking faculty members, junior colleges appear to follow practices which cover about as much latitude as those used in high schools and universities combined. This seems largely due to the fact that the junior college is an intermediate institution, with its status as yet flexible and varying widely according to type of control and other factors. Some junior colleges clearly regard themselves as concerned with secondary education and thus with rounding out the job of the high school, whereas others consider themselves to be small editions of four-year colleges. The increase in importance of publicly controlled junior colleges which seems to be taking place, particularly under legislation which permits reasonably populous high-school districts to add Grades XIII and XIV to their school programs, will probably become an important force in integrating the junior college into the American conception of secondary education. The general upgrading in qualifications of

high-school teachers, which has been taking place in this country for several years, should facilitate the integrative process.

The tenure status of faculty members in junior colleges that are parts of county or city school systems rather than independently organized institutions further suggests strength in the integrated institution. However, the picture in this as in several other respects is not clear-cut. Data in the present study on the distribution of

faculty members by sex in publicly controlled junior colleges suggest that, if a large number of junior colleges are established as integrated parts of expanded secondary schools, the sex ratio among teachers in secondary schools might be affected.

The variation among junior colleges with respect to the features considered in this study reflect considerable flexibility—a flexibility which should be conducive to growth of the young institution.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON STATISTICS, THE THEORY OF TEST CONSTRUCTION, AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

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THE BIBLIOGRAPHY which is presented below has been selected from issues of educational and psychological journals from May, 1953, to June, 1954, inclusive. Sharp distinctions do not exist between the fields covered in this list, but, as an assistance to the student with special interests in one or more of the fields, the references have been classified under the following categories: theory and use of statistical methods, problems of test construction, and factor analysis. No articles dealing primarily with the use of tests have been included because these items are distributed functionally in other lists in the cycle, such as those dealing with secondary-school instruction and guidance.

THEORY AND USE OF STATISTICAL METHODS

658. ABELSON, ROBERT P. "A Note on the Neyman-Johnson Technique," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 213-18.

Compares the analysis of covariance and the Neyman-Johnson techniques for testing the significance of the difference between the mean scores of two groups on some criterion variable, where the differ-

ential effects of one or more related variables must be statistically eliminated. Suggests a combination of the two techniques.

659. ANDERSON, KENNETH E., GRAY, ROBERT T., and KULLSTEDT, EINAR V. "Tables for Transmutation of Orders of Merit into Units of Amount or Scores," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 247-55.

A series of tables for changing ranks into normalized scores. A table is entered with "size of class" and "rank in class." The tabled value is the score out of a possible 100 that would be made if the scores were normally distributed with mean of 50 and standard deviation of 20.

660. ANDERSON, SCARVIA B. "Estimating Grade Reliability," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVII (December, 1953), 461-64.

Compares two methods of estimating the reliability of the same sets of college grades and discusses the use of unweighted versus weighted grade-point ratios.

661. ANDERSON, T. W. "On Estimation of Parameters in Latent Structure Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 1-10.

"The latent structure model considered here postulates that a population of individuals can be divided into m classes such that each class is 'homogeneous' in the sense that for the individuals in the class

the responses to N dichotomous items or questions are statistically independent. A method is given for deducing the proportions of the population in each latent class and the probabilities of positive responses to each item for individuals in each class from knowledge of the probabilities of positive responses for individuals from the population as a whole." A numerical example is included.

662. BURKE, C. J. "A Brief Note on One-tailed Tests," *Psychological Bulletin*, L (September, 1953), 384-87.

Questions the logic associated with many of the current uses of one-tailed tests in student experimental reports and in published and not-yet-published manuscripts.

663. CHAPANIS, A. "Notes on an Approximation Method for Fitting Parabolic Equations to Experimental Data," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (December, 1953), 327-36.

Illustrates the extreme distortion that can occur when a certain approximation method is employed for fitting a parabolic equation to experimental data.

664. COLLIER, RAYMOND D., JR. "The Least-Squares Analysis of a $p \times q \times r$ Factorial Design with Unequal Subclass Frequencies," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 279-83.

Gives some general explanations of the least-squares solutions of a three-factor design with unequal subclass frequencies and presents an actual applied problem showing the analysis of such a design.

665. DAVIDOFF, MELVIN D. "Note on 'A Table for the Rapid Determination of the Tetrachoric Correlation Coefficient,'" *Psychometrika*, XIX (June, 1954), 163-64.

Revises the figures in the original article (Item 666 this list) concerning the accuracy of the tetrachoric estimates involved. Minor errors in the original article are also noted.

666. DAVIDOFF, MELVIN D., and GOHEEN, HOWARD W. "A Table for the Rapid Determination of the Tetrachoric Correlation Coefficient," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (June, 1953), 115-21.

A table developed to facilitate the calculation of the Pearson Q_3 estimate of the tetrachoric correlation coefficient. Comparisons are made with results obtainable from the Chesire, Saffir, and Thurstone tables.

667. DENENBERG, VICTOR H. "Remark on 'A Qualification in the Use of Analysis of Variance,'" *Psychological Bulletin*, LI (March, 1954), 169-71.

Comments on the use of analysis of variance to test for a significant linear or curvilinear regression between the independent and dependent variables.

668. DWYER, PAUL S. "Solution of the Personnel Classification Problem with the Method of Optimal Regions," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 11-26.

Introduces the method of optimal regions and shows how it can be applied to the classification of personnel.

669. EDWARDS, DAISY STARKEY, and PARKIN, SIDNEY J. "An Empirical Investigation of the Problem of Disproportionate Frequencies in Analysis of Covariance as Applied to a Methods Experiment," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 257-64.

A comparison of analyses based on disproportionate frequencies with one using proportionate group frequencies. The study arose from the difficulty, in usual classroom experiments, of meeting the rigid restrictions on the numbers of cases in the experimental groups.

670. FISKE, DONALD W., and JONES, LYLE V. "Sequential Analysis in Psychological Research," *Psychological Bulletin*, LI (May, 1954), 264-75.

Introduces sequential analysis to psychological researchers and discusses the operating characteristic function for statistical tests in general.

671. FRIEDMAN, NORMAN. "The Quartile Difference Method of Item Selection," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVII (October, 1953), 356-60.

Describes an item-selection technique for categorical data, the quartile difference method, which was developed to help researchers select the most highly predictive combination of items from a pool of possible predictors.

672. GORDON, MARY AGNES. "Empirical Comparison of Three Multiple Correlation Techniques," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 133-37.

Three methods were used to select five-variable sub-batteries from a twenty-variable battery of tests for predicting academic success in different areas. The three methods are evaluated on the basis of their complexity and on the basis of the results of cross-validation.

673. GREEN, BERT F., JR. "A Note on Item Selection for Maximum Validity," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 161-64.

Discusses the estimation of the validity of subsets of items when inter-item correlations are not available.

674. GULLIKSEN, HAROLD. "A Least Squares Solution for Successive Intervals Assuming Unequal Standard Deviation," *Psychometrika*, XIX (June, 1954), 117-39.

Presents a least-squares solution for the law of categorical judgment and the method of successive intervals, which is formally equivalent to Horst's solution for the matrix of incomplete data. A simplified approximation is also given. Numerical examples are included.

675. GUTTMAN, LOUIS. "Reliability Formulas That Do Not Assume Experimental Independence," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 225-39.

Presents some general reliability formulas that make no assumptions about experimental independence. "The basic and exact formulas developed here are mathematical identities or tautologies. As such, they have no immediate practical use. Their importance lies in the fact that they provide a universal framework from which different practical formulas are easily derived."

676. HARRIS, CHESTER. "Note on Dispersion Analysis," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 289-91.

Comments on the matrices used in dispersion analysis and suggests a calculation routine that some workers may prefer.

677. HARRISON, STEPHEN; ISHLER, NORMAN H.; and LANE, ELSIE M. "Note on the Selection of a Panel of Judges so as To Maximize Panel Efficiency," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 79-88.

Statistical procedures are developed for selecting a panel of judges for psychometric work. Cost efficiency is also discussed. A numerical example in the sensory field is included.

678. HEMPHILL, F. M. "Suggested Desk Calculator Operations for Computing Moments by the Row," *Biometrics*, X (March, 1954), 152-54.

Gives step-by-step directions for computing moments of group frequency distributions.

679. HORST, PAUL. "Correcting the Kuder-Richardson Reliability for Dispersion of Item Difficulties," *Psychological Bulletin*, L (September, 1953), 371-74.

Derives a formula for estimating the reliability coefficient which will have unity as its upper limit regardless of the dispersion of item difficulties.

680. HORST, PAUL. "Relationships between Several Kuder-Richardson Reliability Formulas," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Autumn, 1953), 497-504.

Discusses in particular K-R₁₄ and K-R₂₀ and their relationship.

681. JONES, LYLE V., and FISKE, DONALD W. "Models for Testing the Significance of Combined Results," *Psychological Bulletin*, L (September, 1953), 375-82.

Presents models of two designs by which an experimenter may determine the probability of obtaining a particular set of results on two or more tests of significance. Substitute procedures are suggested for the case when the assumption of statistical independence of the several results is untenable.

682. LUCOW, WILLIAM HARRISON. "Estimating Components of Variation in an Experimental Study of Learning," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 265-71.

Indicates "the formulas and procedures that might be used in analyzing the variance in educational test results. The procedure is that of Model II analysis of variance, suitable for the determination of variance components." The procedure is illustrated with numerical data.

683. MARITZ, J. S. "Estimation of the Correlation Coefficient in the Case of a Bivariate Normal Population When One of the Variables is Dichotomized," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (June, 1953), 97-110.

An empirical investigation of a method of estimating the correlation coefficient when one variable is dichotomized. The case of a restricted sample is also investigated.

684. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B., HERTZKA, ALFRED F., and PERRY, NORMAN C. "Errors in Estimates of Item Difficulty

Obtained from Use of Extreme Groups on a Criterion Variable," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Winter, 1953), 601-6.

A brief description of the systematic error introduced when the proportion of the total criterion group getting an item right is taken as the mean of the proportions of extreme groups getting it right, in case each extreme group comprises less than one-half of the total.

685. MOONAN, WILLIAM J. "On the Problem of Sample Size for Multivariate Simple Random Sampling," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 285-88.

Shows how to find the most efficient sample size for surveys which sample several characteristics of the same individuals.

686. SAKODA, JAMES M., COHEN, BURTON H., and BEALL, GEOFFREY. "Test of Significance for a Series of Statistical Tests," *Psychological Bulletin*, LI (March, 1954), 172-75.

Presents charts and procedures to assist in evaluating a series of statistical tests, such as t 's, F 's, and χ^2 's.

687. STANLEY, JULIAN C. "'Psychological' Correction for Chance," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 297-98.

Discusses correcting scores for chance with respect both to the numerical effect on the scores and to the psychological effect on the attitude of the students.

688. STAUGAS, LEONARD. "A Rapid Method for Scoring Tests Punched in IBM Cards," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 101-5.

Describes the use of the Type 101 Statistical Machine, a gang punch, and a calculating punch for scoring large numbers of tests.

689. WEBSTER, HAROLD. "Approximating Maximum Test Validity by a Non-parametric Method," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 207-11.

Suggests an approximation as a substitute for a more laborious procedure for the selection of items that will maximize test-criterion validity.

690. WITRYOL, SAM L. "Scaling Procedures Based on the Method of Paired Comparisons," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 31-37.

An experimental comparison of Thurstone's Case III and Case V and Guilford's Short-Cut approaches to scaling paired-comparison data. Recent literature is reviewed, and a list of thirty-three references is appended.

PROBLEMS OF TEST CONSTRUCTION

691. BROGDEN, HUBERT E. "A Rationale for Minimizing Distortion in Personality Questionnaire Keys," *Psychometrika*, XIX (June, 1954), 141-48.

Gives a rationale and provides a method for improving the validity of questionnaire keys by minimizing distortion or faking by the respondents.

692. CLARK, KENNETH E., and GEE, HELEN H. "Selecting Items for Interest Inventory Keys," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 12-17.

A summary of the work which has been done in trying out various methods for developing scoring keys for the United States Navy Vocational Interest Inventory.

693. DRESSEL, PAUL L., and SCHMID, JOHN. "Some Modifications of the Multiple-Choice Item," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Winter, 1953), 574-95.

An investigation of a number of variations of multiple-choice items to determine whether, without undue extension of test-

ing time, greater discrimination and other significant factors can be incorporated into a score. The data consisted of five forms of a multiple-choice test; the subjects were five sections of college Freshmen and Sophomores, with about ninety students per section.

694. EBEL, ROBERT L. "The Use of Item Response Time Measurements in the Construction of Educational Achievement Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Autumn, 1953), 391-401.

Investigates the feasibility of collecting response-time data during the tryout of test materials with large groups of students. Illustrates the use of such data for increasing test validity.

695. EBEL, ROBERT L. "Procedures for the Analysis of Classroom Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 352-63.

Describes and illustrates a procedure for analyzing tests that can be followed by classroom teachers who wish to improve their own informal measuring instruments.

696. FOWLER, H. M. "An Application of the Ferguson Method of Computing Item Conformity and Person Conformity," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 237-45.

Discusses some theoretical aspects and practical applications of the Ferguson method. (To some readers "internal validity" may be a more familiar term than "item conformity.") The discussion is illustrated with numerical data.

697. GLASER, ROBERT; DAMRIN, DORA E.; and GARDNER, FLOYD M. "The Tab Item: A Technique for the Measurement of Proficiency in Diagnostic Problem Solving Tasks," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 283-93.

Describes a type of test item designed to approximate performance testing by means of group-testing procedures.

698. LOEVINGER, JANE; GLEESER, GOLDINE C.; and DuBOIS, PHILIP H. "Maximizing the Discriminating Power of a Multiple-Score Test," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (December, 1953), 309-17.

A method is presented for constructing a multiple-score test for which the homogeneity of each subtest is maximized and the correlations between subtests are minimized.

699. LORD, FREDERIC M. "The Relation of Test Score to the Trait Underlying the Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Winter, 1953), 517-49.

A discussion which is concerned with demonstrating a number of significant conclusions that can be reached regarding the nature of scores on certain kinds of tests without "making any assumptions other than that it is not sheer nonsense to talk about 'measuring' ability."

700. LORGE, IRVING, and DIAMOND, LORRAINE K. "The Value of Information to Good and Poor Judges of Item Difficulty," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 29-33.

An empirical study to determine to what extent knowledge of the difficulties of representative items may improve difficulty estimates made by judges of differing levels of competency.

701. LORGE, IRVING, and DIAMOND, LORRAINE K. "The Prediction of Absolute Item Difficulty by Ranking and Estimating Techniques," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 365-72.

Describes an experiment designed to test the hypothesis that estimates of absolute difficulties of test items would be better when predicted from the average rank order assigned by judges than when obtained by averaging judges' estimates of the per cent likely to pass an item.

702. MACLEAN, ANGUS G., and TAIT, ARTHUR T. "A Procedure for Analyzing a Test and Maximizing Its Reliability," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XXII (March, 1954), 273-78.

A punched-card procedure is described which will provide data for determining item difficulties and internal-validity measures and by means of which subsets of items can be selected to provide maximum reliability. The computations are illustrated with a fictitious example.

703. MENDER, KARL. "On the Design of Grouping Problems and Related Intelligence Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLIV (May, 1953), 275-87.

Demonstrates pitfalls in the construction of certain types of test items. Gives a set of rules for avoiding such pitfalls and illustrates the application of the rules in constructing a wide variety of test items.

704. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B., HERTZKA, ALFRED F., and PERRY, NORMAN C. "Abacs for the Rapid Estimation of a Tetrachoric Coefficient from a Phi Coefficient Calculated from Use of Contrasted Groups," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Autumn, 1953), 478-85.

Describes "the use of three abacs in item-analysis work that permit a rapid estimate of the size of a tetrachoric coefficient r_t from knowledge of the value of a phi coefficient ϕ_p for known levels of item difficulty . . . when the proportion p' of individuals within each of the contrasted groups is either .50 or .27 (approximately)."

705. NEDELSKY, LEO. "Absolute Grading Standards for Objective Tests," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 3-19.

Presents a technique for determining the minimum passing score on an objective test of the multiple-choice type. The procedure is independent of the difficulty of

the test and of the level of ability of the group to whom it is administered. Illustrative data are included.

706. NIXON, JOHN E. "The Mechanics of Questionnaire Construction," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVII (March, 1954), 481-87.

A series of practical suggestions concerning the mechanical makeup and physical arrangement of questionnaire and check-list forms.

707. PLUMLEE, LYNNETTE B. "The Predicted and Observed Effect of Chance Success on Multiple-Choice Test Validity," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 65-70.

Compares predicted validity values with empirical validity values in an experiment which involved the same mathematics test items in free-answer form and in multiple-choice form.

708. SHERRIFFS, ALEX C., and BOOMER, DONALD S. "Who is Penalized by the Penalty for Guessing?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XLV (February, 1954), 81-90.

"An attempt to find evidence as to the presence of contaminating factors in the conventional right-minus-wrong test score." Comparisons are made between number-right and right-minus-wrong scores in relation to the "A scale" of the Minnesota Multiphasic Psychological Inventory.

709. STRONG, EDWARD K., JR. "Validity versus Reliability," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVIII (April, 1954), 103-4.

A brief discussion of validity versus reliability with special reference to vocational-interest inventories.

FACTOR ANALYSIS

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Presents and discusses several theorems dealing with selection and invariance in connection with the factorial description of a test battery.

711. CATTELL, RAYMOND B., and GRUEN, WALTER. "Primary Personality Factors in the Questionnaire Medium for Children Eleven to Fourteen Years Old," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 50-76.

A report of a factor analysis of 103 questionnaire items administered to a sample of 330 children between the ages of nine and twelve. The items were selected to represent factors identified for adults.

712. EDWARDS, ALLEN L., and HORST, PAUL. "Social Desirability as a Variable in Q Technique Studies," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIII (Winter, 1953), 620-25.

A brief discussion of the advantages and means of controlling social desirability when constructing samples of items to be used in Q-technique studies.

713. FRUCHTER, BENJAMIN. "Differences in Factor Content of Rights and Wrongs Scores," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 257-65.

"The right-response scores and wrong-response scores of speeded aptitude tests were factor analyzed to determine whether they differ in factorial content. The information thus obtained was used to derive scoring formulas that yield purer measures of a factor than do scoring formulas derived in other ways."

714. FRUCHTER, BENJAMIN. "Measurement of Spatial Abilities," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 387-95.

A general review of studies of the spatial factor or factors. A list of thirty-seven references is appended.

715. GREEN, RUSSEL F., GUILFORD, J. P., CHRISTENSEN, PAUL R., and COMREY, ANDREW L. "A Factor-analytic Study

of Reasoning Abilities," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (June, 1953), 135-60.

A factor analysis of thirty-two tests administered to 144 air-force officer candidates and 139 air cadets.

716. GUILFORD, J. P., CHRISTENSEN, P. R., KETTNER, N. W., GREEN, R. F., and HERTZKA, ALFRED F. "A Factor-analytic Study of Navy Reasoning Tests with the Air Force Aircrew Classification Battery," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 301-25.

Report of the analysis of 54 tests administered to 395 air cadets and 343 student officers. Included are descriptions of the tests, an outline of the treatment, and an interpretation of the factors. Copies of the correlation and factor matrices can be purchased.

717. GUTTMAN, LOUIS. "Image Theory for the Structure of Quantitative Variates," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (December, 1953), 277-96.

Introduces a new structural theory, the image theory, whereby the intercorrelations within a set of variables all can be simultaneously interpreted or explained by means of their mutual multiple regressions. Shows the relationship between image analysis and common-factor analysis.

718. HARMAN, HARRY H. "The Square Root Method and Multiple Group Methods of Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 39-55.

Outlines the square-root method for the solution of a set of simultaneous linear equations, which is useful in connection with multiple group analysis procedures. Several multiple group methods are discussed and compared.

719. MATIN, LEONARD, and ADKINS, DOROTHY C. "A Second-Order Factor Analysis of Reasoning Abilities," *Psychometrika*, XIX (March, 1954), 71-78.

A second-order factor analysis of thirteen first-order factors based on sixty-six variables and two hundred cases.

720. MICHAEL, WILLIAM B. "A Suggested Research Approach to the Identification of Psychological Processes Associated with Spatial-Visualization Factors," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 401-6.

Describes a possible research program to select and study "relatively homogeneous samples of individuals who differ in their approaches to the solution of test items in the spatial-visualization domain and in their relative standings in such traits as verbal comprehension and general reasoning."

721. RIPPE, DAYLE D. "Application of a Large Sampling Criterion to Some Sampling Problems in Factor Analysis," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 191-205.

A technique is presented to test the completeness of factor solutions and also to test the significance of common-component loadings. Numerical examples are included.

722. SLATER, PATRICK. "The Factor Analysis of Matrices of Negative Correlations," *British Journal of Statistical Psychology*, VI (November, 1953, Part II), 101-6.

Demonstrates a method of factoring matrices of negative correlations.

723. VINCENT, D. F. "The Earliest Formulae Used in Factor Analysis," *American Journal of Psychology*, LXVII (March, 1954), 155-63.

An attempt to discover by what formula Spearman calculated the "g" loadings given in his famous 1904 paper that introduced the idea of factor analysis.

724. WHERRY, ROBERT J., and WINER, BEN J. "A Method for Factoring Large

Numbers of Items," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (June, 1953), 161-79.

A method for estimating factor loadings without computing the intercorrelation matrix is developed for use in connection with factoring items. Subtest intercorrelations are required, as well as correlations between items and subtests. Numerical examples are given.

725. WILSON, ROBERT C., and COMREY, ANDREW L. "A Short Method of Factor Analysis," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXVIII (June, 1954), 181-84.

Suggests a modification of Thurstone's diagonal method of analysis. This new, short method is empirically compared with the centroid method.

726. ZACHERT, VIRGINIA, and FRIEDMAN, GABRIEL. "The Stability of the Factorial Pattern of Aircrew Classification Tests in Four Analyses," *Psychometrika*, XVIII (September, 1953), 219-24.

A summary of the results of four analyses of the Army Air Forces Aircrew Classification Battery. Comparisons are made between wartime and postwar populations and between groups with and without previous flying experience.

727. ZIMMERMAN, WAYNE S. "A Note on the Recognition and Interpretation of

Composite Factors," *Psychological Bulletin*, L (September, 1953), 387-89.

Discusses composite factors, with special emphasis on the factors listed by J. W. French in *The Description of Aptitude and Achievement Tests in Terms of Rotated Factors* (Psychometric Monograph No. 5. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951). A reply by Mr. French follows the "Note."

728. ZIMMERMAN, WAYNE S. "The Influence of Item Complexity upon the Factor Composition of a Spatial Visualization Test," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Spring, 1954), 106-19.

Gives the factor composition of two sets of tests, some of which are in both sets. The numbers of cases on which the correlations are based vary from 218 to 8,158. The study was designed to test the hypothesis that the factors found in a spatial-visualization test are determined by the difficulty and complexity of the items.

729. ZIMMERMAN, WAYNE S. "Hypotheses concerning the Nature of the Spatial Factors," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, XIV (Summer, 1954), 396-400.

Describes the development and follow-up of two hypotheses concerning the nature of a spatial factor which appears to be distinct from "visualization."

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EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

LEE J. CRONBACH, *Educational Psychology*.
New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co.,
1954. Pp. xxviii+628. \$5.50.

This new introductory textbook, like several other recent volumes with the same or a similar title, impresses one with its substantial and important content. It throws considerable doubt on the wisdom of those teacher-training institutions which substitute a simplified course in mental hygiene or child development for the basic introductory educational psychology.

The organization of this volume tends to follow the traditional pattern. Three introductory chapters are followed by five on growth and development. These include material on personality, mental measurement, and individual differences, all of which are treated as aspects of readiness. The third part, beginning with a discussion of transfer, takes up the acquisition of ideas, attitudes, and skills, in that order. Part four combines a treatment of aspiration level, group functioning, and evaluation and achievement testing. In the last part, "Emotional Learning," which develops the mental-hygiene viewpoint, it is interesting that the term *frustration* is largely by-passed in favor of the earlier *thwarting*. The book closes with a chapter on personality structure and character development.

From the point of view of theory, most interesting are the "seven elements in behavior" outlined in chapter iii: (1) goal—some consequence one wishes to attain; (2) readiness—sum total of response patterns and abilities; (3) situation—objects, persons, symbols requiring choice; (4) interpretation

—predicting what may happen if various responses are made; (5) response—action leading to greatest net satisfaction; (6) consequence—confirmation or contradiction; and (7) reaction to thwarting—when one fails to satisfy his wants or attain his goals. While the abbreviated explanations of these terms do not do justice to the author's treatment, the list indicates the nature of his commendable effort to base an educational psychology on a restricted number of concepts as a systematic framework.

An outstanding feature of Cronbach's book is Don Sibley's drawings. At times approaching the sequential form of the so-called "comics," they are often amusing and always very much to the point and, with other pictures, some from current films, make up a list of ninety-seven illustrations. Confucius and Comenius as well as "the student" should be well pleased. But this is not all. There are twenty-eight tables and thirteen "case descriptions." The latter are vivid two- or three-page narratives of revealing classroom episodes about "Olive with her low academic ability," "Margaret who felt unloved," and others. There are also many other shorter illustrative anecdotes. One wonders whether the undergraduate mind needs to be wooed with such a welter of concrete matter, but reports are that the students like it. Another innovation is the insertion of questions and problems at appropriate points within the chapter instead of leaving them until the end.

The author, in his Preface, includes himself among the followers of the Chicago functionalist school of Dewey, Angell, and Judd,

though, peculiarly enough, of these three, Dewey is the only one whose name appears in the Author Index of some 450 names, and that only with a short quotation on collateral learning. Other seemingly erratic selections are no doubt due either to personal preferences or to the author's stated objective of keeping the treatment relevant to school problems. For example, E. L. Thorndike is mentioned only for his contribution to transfer, though Gates appears on eight pages, as does Adorno. But Hilda Taba claims nine citations; Allison Davis, twelve; and Havighurst, at least an equal number. Freud receives two mentions; Erich Fromm, five; and Adler and Jung, none. Köhler and Koffka also receive none.

In the discussion of goals and values, under the head of "What teachers are trying to accomplish," there is a commendable emphasis on socialization, although this seems at times to be a little overdone, as in the following: "Each portion of the curriculum is intended to fulfil a socializing function" (p. 26). While the student is cautioned that this does not necessarily imply that there is no place for reform or that one uniform set of attitudes should be imposed, it does underemphasize the importance of individual goals. It would seem that there should still be a place for acquiring knowledge and skills for the satisfactions they provide, whether or not they make one a more fully accepted group member. It is perhaps this preoccupation with socialization that has led to an almost complete neglect of aesthetic values and of learning in the arts.

The increased scope given the readiness concept has also led into certain difficulties. The pupil's readiness is "the sum of all his characteristics which make him more likely to respond in one way than another" (p. 74). Citing the effect of preschool experience of New Mexican children on their grade score on a reading test, the author states in a footnote: "Olson takes the contrary position that readiness is ordinarily determined by the pupil's natural growth rate which will not be

affected by remedial teaching" (p. 215). Needless to say, the confusion of preschool experience and remedial teaching is unfortunate, and the brief footnote hardly does justice to the great number of longitudinal studies on which Olson's position is based.

Other incautious statements are found from time to time, as, for example: "*Mental tests are measures of present ability, not native capacity*" (p. 212; italics are the author's.) The undergraduate, who is prone to such yes-no statements anyway, may not note the later qualification: "True he will not learn . . . if his inborn capacity is too low." Again, "The so-called 'intelligence test' might better be regarded as a measure of general readiness for school learning. It is a composite measure of the abilities that affect readiness for school work" (p. 240). Perhaps the analytical work of various kinds done by Binet, Spearman, Thorndike, and Thurstone is considered by the author to be insufficiently practical to call for comment at this level. But it sometimes happens that attempted simplifications become confusing. On the whole, however, Cronbach has done an excellent job on the selection of his materials. The research studies reported are pertinent; they are well presented; and their significance is indicated. The exposition is clear, but there is no tendency to write down. Even without all the pictures, this would be an excellent book.

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MARIAN COTTON and ADELAIDE BRADBURN, *Music throughout the World: A Course in Understanding and Appreciation Based on the Music of Many Countries*. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co., 1953. Pp. 294. \$3.32.

The definitive book on music appreciation, like the Great American Novel, has long been eagerly awaited. The present volume does not completely satisfy our expect-

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tations, but it has some value as a textbook for classes in music appreciation in secondary schools. Despite the all-embracing title, only the music of the European and American continents is considered.

The book is divided into two main parts. The first part (seventeen short chapters) covers the folk and art music of Europe and the Americas, while descriptions of media of performance comprise the second part (six chapters). The words and tunes of selected folk songs are given in a final section, and these are followed by a nineteen-page Index. Drawings throughout the text are by Lester Peterson; the advisory editor is Don Malin, of the C. C. Birchard and Company staff.

The organization of chapters follows principles based on what is assumed to be the musical interests of average American boys and girls. In general, each chapter devoted to a country or group of countries begins with descriptions of the folk music of the country discussed and leads to brief accounts of the principal composers and their best-known works. Initial consideration is rightfully given to folk and popular music of the United States and to representative American composers of past and present. Following a chapter on Central and South American music, each important European country and its music is given a separate chapter. Because of the predominant influence of Germany and Austria over the art of music in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, three chapters are allotted to these countries.

The discussion of media of performance begins with a chapter on the symphony orchestra, with photographs of symphony players and their instruments. Each orchestral instrument is briefly described. The remaining chapters take up the piano and harp, the band, and choral and religious music. The final chapter treats of music printing and publishing.

Throughout the book each chapter has a list of questions bearing on the text and a set of "Listening Suggestions" giving only title and composer. A "suggestion" such as "Any

symphonies, sonatas, or string quartets listed under Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Mendelssohn" (p. 62) is neither helpful nor original. In the case of specific works that are listed, why were citations to recordings of some of the suggested works not included? Although new recordings appear monthly, it would have helped the busy teacher to provide the names of good recordings now available.

The authors have not always exercised careful discrimination in selecting factual material. Items bearing on the personal idiosyncrasies of some composers are jumbled together with information about their music, forming patterns of little meaning or significance. Hence some of the questions demand mere *memoriter* response, such as, "Name several careers in which Rachmaninoff excelled" (p. 146), or "Tell some interesting facts concerning his [Wagner's] character" (p. 83). This type of question tends to give such facts undue importance in the mind of the adolescent student.

Some of the facts themselves have not been carefully checked. The publishers caught one misstatement in regard to Handel on page 53. In their next printing they should consider the following errors: Wagner's first opera was not *Rienzi* (p. 80); Liszt produced and directed, but did not perform, *Lohengrin* (p. 82); it was not the score, but the poem, of the *Ring* that caught the attention of King Ludwig of Bavaria (p. 82); *Der Rosenkavalier* is not the only important work which Richard Strauss produced after he was thirty-five (p. 88); *O Bone Jesu* was not composed by Palestrina (p. 126); Monteverdi's *Orfeo* was not "recently presented at the Metropolitan Opera" (p. 128) but was produced by Mitropoulos with the Philharmonic Symphony in 1952; because Tchaikovsky wrote the second movement of his *Pathétique* symphony in five-four meter does not warrant the statement that he "frequently used unusual meters" (p. 142); the cello theme appears as the second theme of the first, not the second, movement of Schubert's *Unfinished*

Symphony (p. 186); Tchaikovsky wrote the third, not the second, movement of his *Fourth Symphony* for pizzicato strings, and not the entire movement is so written, for the trio features woodwind and brass (p. 187). On page 68 the vague use of a personal pronoun makes it appear that not Beethoven, but his father, formed the habit of taking long walks in the process of composing.

The book is durably bound and lies open easily in the hand. With proper precautions, a capable and experienced teacher will find it convenient and helpful as a classroom tool.

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GLENN MYERS BLAIR, R. STEWART JONES, and RAY H. SIMPSON, *Educational Psychology*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1954. Pp. xviii+602. \$4.75.

Textbooks in the field of educational psychology vary from an encyclopedic style of research discussion written for advanced students to psychoeducational-problem discussions written for young prospective teachers. This book, near the latter end of the scale, emphasizes classroom applications and methodological matters of immediate use to teachers in preparation and does not present educational psychology as a science.

The first half of the book is more concerned with psychology per se, than is the last half, which tends to deal with classroom problems, methods, and practices. As judged by references cited in the footnotes, there is relatively little primary research literature to support the methodological discussions as compared with that supporting the psychological discussions. The book cites an impressive number of references (784 footnotes). Among those which refer to primary research reports (approximately 205), about half are to reports published before 1945, and about half to reports published before 1941.

On the whole, the book is smoothly written and readable. It will appeal to teachers

because of its wealth of references to actual situations in which individuals and groups, both in and out of the classroom, are shown to need skilful attention. Even teachers in preparation will recognize the problems as realistic ones. That the authors are men who maintain firsthand acquaintance with teachers and their problems gives the book pragmatic face validity.

In concentrating on teachers' problems, the authors have of necessity not been able to develop a basic understanding of the fundamental psychology of behavior in any full sense. This dilemma faces any single-text approach to the psychology of teaching. If a student is to acquire a reasonably complete knowledge of basic psychology, he will have to get it from another source. On the other hand, such a student would find much of that material partially reiterated in this book in abbreviated fashion. The authors correctly say that basic psychology courses have not yet seemed to be valuable to teachers (when given prior to teaching experience). Whether the solution is to be found in giving up the teaching of fundamental psychology in favor of more superficial courses in procedures is not yet clear, but that seems to be the most prominent position among writers who are "education-oriented."

The scope of the task that the authors set for themselves is stated as follows:

The modern teacher clearly has much more to do than listen to recitations and assign marks to pupils on the basis of their performance. He must be a diagnostician who can discover difficulties both in the learning and adjustment of pupils, and at the same time, possess the requisite skill for carrying forward the necessary remedial work. He may also have important educational and vocational guidance functions to perform [p. 6].

This is an impossible goal for most teachers, but it is in part responsible for creating in the reviewer the impression that there is too much detail on a few of the basic elements and too little on others to give either an adequate general concept or a complete

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grasp of the specific facts. For example, in the discussion of needs in chapter ii, the approach is obviously in terms of school problems, but from a dynamic point of view is somewhat incomplete and a little inaccurate (see discussion of Freud's concept of the sex drive, p. 17).

Some will find objectionable the position of the authors that poor training of teachers is the basic reason for their failure to handle the enormous problems of the classroom wisely. Here the writers have conveniently overlooked the psychological facts about what can be mastered by one person who has the native capacities of a typical American teacher.

Only a few specific criticisms can be offered here. In the section on growth and development, there is difficulty in getting a complete idea from some chapters. The authors tend to give interesting bits of information without weaving them into a whole and meaningful concept of chapter size. For example, in chapter iii it is first said that there are several principles (p. 42), after which the first principle cited is that "growth is continuous" (p. 43). No other principles are given in a co-ordinate style. Instead, the discussion shifts to "Needs and Developmental Tasks," "Mental Development," and "Personality and Social Development."

There is not enough material under some of the headings to complete a picture. On the topic "Personality Change with Age," the nearest the authors get to telling what changes take place is in this sentence: "The adult personality was more rigid than that of the child. Adults strove for a more limited set of goals than did children or adolescents" (p. 52).

In the section on learning and the one on testing and evaluating, the flow of ideas is smoother and provides a more comprehensive picture of the processes involved. Applications appear to be more apparent. Several psychologists will disagree with the authors when they say:

In a sense, of course, intelligence tests are nothing more than achievement tests. They

differ from regular achievement tests in that they attempt to sample those achievements which are somewhat independent of formal schooling [pp. 424-25].

This is an extreme point of view and confuses a weakness of some tests with one facet of the theory of intelligence testing.

Most of the criticisms which can be made are along technical psychological lines, and they may be relatively unimportant in a first course for teachers. In the hands of a good instructor, the book can be very helpful.

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DONALD W. MILES, *Recent Reforms in French Secondary Education with Implications for French and American Education*. Teachers College Studies in Education. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. x+164. \$3.75.

In a day when Americans' need to understand the French seems sadly to outrun our ability to do so, Donald W. Miles's *Recent Reforms in French Secondary Education* may have more than normal usefulness. In any case, it is an interesting and instructive study of recent French experimentation in one of the great movements of our time: the extension and reinterpretation of secondary education in Western Europe.

Aside from the Introduction and Summary, this work divides into three main parts: the historical background (chaps. i-ii), the planned and actual reforms (chaps. iii-iv), and what the author thinks are the legitimate implications of these reforms for French and American secondary education (chap. v). Except for the historical section, the bibliography is adequate. The historical section suffers from the author's inadequate knowledge of medieval French education and from a tendency to overgeneralize. But both the study of the immediate antecedents of

the reform movement and the chapter setting forth the several plans which constitute its theoretical side are well done. The preference of the Algiers Commission (1944) for English reform over American progressivism, on the ground that the latter is less realistic and too abstract, may surprise some. The elaboration of the French reformers' ideas into the comprehensive and radical educational plan of the Langevin Commission (1944-47) and its "toning-down" in the Delbos Bill (1949-50) are carefully traced.

Probably more significant than the "paper plans" is the work of the "New Classes," in which progressive French teachers sought to apply their educational principles, particularly in what Americans would call the junior high school years. The New Classes, in actuality, became chiefly "a laboratory for the perfection of new teaching methods and techniques under more favorable conditions than can be found in the traditional classes" (p. 99). And the New Classes were faced with the problem which always recurs when teachers and students seeking to experiment educationally have to meet the tests imposed by outside examinations based on a traditional curriculum. The New Classes had a somewhat longer school day than the traditional classes, an addition compensated for, we are told, by more individualization of instruction, more co-ordination among subjects, and less homework. The center of interest, co-ordination of instruction, teamwork, directed study, and study of the environment are methods characteristic of the New Classes. There is nothing very startling here to Americans, though we might still learn something by applying some of the uses, as centers of interest, of local geography and history or of a "square meter of lawn" to arrive at a just combination of the concrete and the abstract.

The implications which Miles draws for

French and American secondary education seem to the reviewer justified, except for the implications of his comment that "the involvement of educational policy in party politics seems to be an inevitable concomitant of centralized control" [of education]. No doubt the problem is *accentuated* by excessive centralization of French education (and administration generally), but the problem would still be acute—perhaps more acute—if each French *département* had full control of its schools. The deep divisions within French society, the lack of consensus on a basic social and political pattern (something which nearly all Americans take for granted), and the old fight between state and church for educational influence and resources constitute the really fundamental political problem of French secondary education.

The basic "lesson" of this study is well stated by its author in the following paragraph:

French secondary education must become more flexible in organization, control, curriculum, and purpose before it can cope adequately with the education of the mass of French youth. American secondary education must be more effectively co-ordinated in curriculum, purpose, and standards. The French need to place more emphasis upon human relations and the ability to work together, concentrating on educating boys and girls to become future homemakers and citizens, and giving less emphasis to intellectual standards and subject-matter content. Americans must resolve the conflict between curricular and extra-curricular programs so that the needs of the whole child are recognized and met, without neglecting the equally important need for cultural and intellectual achievement appropriate to the potential of the individual [p. 155].

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